

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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## Going Over—A Sailor's Diary

BY STEPHEN C. CLEMENT, ENSIGN, U. S. N. R. F.

September 16, 1918

I sit smoking my pipe—a corncob, long and cool and sweet. The place—first-class stateroom, No. 100, on the *Empress of Russia*, transport in His Majesty's service.

The night is quiet, with only occasional voices of sleepy men outside. The ship is without motion, still securely tied to the dock at pier 58, North River, New York City.

Tomorrow we sail—I, and the ship, and the three thousand odd troops and officers on board her. And in a week, or ten or fourteen days we arrive at Liverpool in the new and wonderful "tight little isle."

The moon shines in water reflection tonight as it did of old—Seal Harbor nights. But there is a difference. The ferry boats and the steamers for Coney Island and up the Hudson go by rapidly—all brilliant with light. Overshadowing all, the water-front buildings of New York, and across the river, the giant funnels of mighty transports.

Today is gone. Tomorrow holds forth its wonders. The future is in the hands of God.

September 17, 1918

"And I took the wings of the morning, and sailed to the uttermost parts of the sea."

It is a quarter of eight. Suddenly, where all night had been immobility, comes motion. The wharf slowly recedes and vanishes. A tug turns our bow and leaves us. We are off. A fifteen-thousand-ton steamship does not "speed on her way." She goes slowly, majestically, as if she knew, and was proud of, and would keep safe the several thousand lives entrusted to her. Behind and in front of us other transports back from their docks, turn, and steam down the river. It is to be a troop convoy, and apparently a large one.

The New York waterfront is almost hidden in haze. The larger buildings have acquired a flatness of outline that gives them the appearance of an oil painting.

The boys are all interested in the Statue of Liberty. She stands, arm raised, pointing on to Europe, a cluster of tents at her feet. Was she simply a statue, a landmark? Or did she represent to these men the ideals for which they were going to fight? I do not know.

The band strikes up "Goodbye, Broadway; Hello, France." Everybody cheers. We pass a ferryboat, all lopsided with people. They wave, and call, and

beckon. We shout back. The boat goes swiftly by. It is the saddest parting of all. We are leaving America.

We stop for a gathering of the ships. There are a lot of us. I can count eight or ten, and there are others beyond, haze-hidden. All are troop-ships, their decks covered with brown faces and browner bodies. It is truly a precious convoy.

Two battleships and an oil-burning destroyer join us. We are off again. We pick up three aeroplanes, a dirigible, and pass various "blimps." They simply add additional eyes—eyes that wander ceaselessly back and forth, aiding those other eyes on transport, battleship and scout-chaser. It seems impossible for a submarine to evade them. Everyone is confident and happy.

It is night, now. Air patrol and all of the smaller chasers have gone back home. Outside, the ship is dark; inside, behind darkened windows, men sit and laugh and joke, or perhaps talk quietly and a little seriously.

It is a serious matter for most of us. Hardly any, except the naval officers, have been much at sea. Most of the artillery privates are undergoing their very first sea experience. Of all, they seem most unconcerned. The majority are asleep, sprawled anywhere about the deck. To some of us it is a rather grave problem. If we are torpedoed, what shall we do?

Yet the ships are sailing swiftly, direct into the full moon, and all is quiet. Why worry? The night must take care of itself.

September 19, 1918

We have had a glorious and very wonderful two days. I know of no more inspiring sight than that of fourteen ships breasting their way through the shimmer of the early morning sea. If the hundreds of thousands of men who have crossed over carry any single memory of their trip into after years, I believe it will be the memory of that early morning beauty.

We have been in the Gulf Stream for the better part of two days. Strange are our school perceptions. I had pictured the Gulf Stream as anywhere from a hundred yards to a mile wide, very muddy, raised several feet above the normal surface of the sea, and quite hot. And the school-book conception had never been revised or outgrown.

The water is deep blue, a color I would consider impossible in paintings or oil colors. Here and there

are flecks of seaweed and occasionally large masses of it. The air is warm and quite humid. There are abundant evidences of animal life. A short dark fish, apparently about the build of the black bass, comes out of the water, jumping two and three and four feet, turning over on the way down. Porpoises do flip-flops. A number of small, swallow-like birds skim along the tops of waves. The ship's doctor tells me we will see them all the way across. They are far from home.

A "roughneck" soldier outside is singing an enlightening ballad to the tune, "My Bonnie Lies Over the Ocean." Not very good metre, but it starts a laugh.

"They tell me we're goin' o'er the ocean,

They tell me we're goin' o'er the sea,

They tell me we're goin' o'er the ocean,

But it sounds like Bull-she-ve-ke to me."

I have charge of lifeboat seventeen. It holds thirty-eight all told, thirty-one soldiers, the crew, and myself. We have boat drill twice a day, falling in quickly at the boat and standing by until recall. The ship's crew has charge of lowering the boats. I am glad of that.

Today we had a mimic submarine alarm. A gun was fired; our destroyer made circles; the troop-ships shifted from a straight-front formation to a long irregular line. It was truly a wonderful sight.

We do not follow a straight course. We may sail east for six minutes, northeast for four, southeast for five, and so on. It is a zigzag, seemingly without any regularity or plan. The ships act as if they were steered by one brain—and they are. We are in an ever-changing kaleidoscope of position, always new and always beautiful.

It's "awful" hot. Water dipped from the Gulf Stream this afternoon was 77 degrees Fahrenheit! We all dripped perspiration. It was a case of "water, water everywhere." I am told that we are due to pass out of the Gulf Stream tonight. Then things will be cooler. It has taken two days to cross my "muddy little river."

Ship has just been darkened for the night. All exposed lights are out, and all port-holes are closed. The glass is covered with some sort of light-proof preparation. All smoking is done inside. The other ships are dark, too. Their camouflage fast blurs their outlines, making them shadowy and almost invisible.

I found one man who goes to bed every night with his whole uniform on. I don't blame him; but so far, I have been over-confident. The first night I slept as usual; the second night my clothes were laid out for quick dressing; tonight I shall probably wear underclothing. The thing gets on one's nerves a bit.

But why worry? We'll wake up safe.

September 20, 1918

I believe we sailed out of the Gulf Stream this afternoon. It's cooler anyway.

Tonight has as beautiful a moon as one could wish to see. It seems an ideal world. I cannot realize that somewhere out in the beauty of the night there is a sneaking, slimy, blunt-nosed, dirty fish, lurking

to slip a charge of TNT into our vitals. To the senses the thing seems impossible, and the mind tries to dismiss it but cannot.

It is a fine night from the submarine way of looking at it. They can see us almost as far and as clearly as by day, and we cannot see them. We passed a tramp steamer yesterday. Gossip reports her to have been shelled two days before. The second day out we passed within a few feet of the boom of some small vessel, probably that of a sunken fishing smack. We may have excitement yet.

I do not believe that any of us are afraid of being sunk if the sea is not so rough as to be dangerous in itself. But nobody wants the inconvenience, the losing of personal possessions, the excitement in the night. As C—, my stateroom companion, put it "I'd hate to land in England in a suit of pajamas."

Today we had a visitor, a little timid, tired, spar-row-like bird. But so much human society was too much for her, and she flew away again.

Some sort of large fish, or rather a school of them, passed this noon. They poked up black fins a good foot in length. Everybody thought they were periscopes at first. I was told they were black-fish. My one regret was that I could not stop and try them out with hook and line.

Tonight, an hour of "Rummy" in the smoking room, a long talk and a little singing on the lower bridge, now bed. The sea air makes me terribly sleepy.

September 23, 1918

Finally out of the Gulf Stream. We've been in and out of it for the last three days. Yesterday the water temperature was 72; today it's much colder. On the edge of the Stream yesterday, lying close at the top of the water, were hundreds of little sharks two to four feet long. They loafed at the surface until we came up to them and then moved lazily off.

No submarines. We keep a pretty good watch for them, but there does not seem much likelihood of attack so far out at sea.

Most of the time goes in reading and eating, loafing and card playing. One or two men do card tricks well. That helps in amusement. Last night we had a big turkey supper, oyster cocktail and all the fixings, with a movie show to top off with as Sunday celebration.

Two sea burials yesterday—one on each of two other ships. It was most impressive—flags at half-mast, all men at attention, the ships slowly dropping back to deposit their dead. It seems rather terrible to think of burial so far from home. It is certainly "dust to dust."

September 24, 1918

Just the usual things—eat, sleep and read, play bridge and checkers, and talk. The last two nights we have had excellent entertainments by men from the various army organizations. The program has consisted of quartet and solo songs, story-telling, tricks, and so on. Sometimes the harmony is fierce and the songs thread-bare, but nobody cares.

The ship has a heavy roll tonight following fog and rain of yesterday. The tops of the swells seem to be twenty to twenty-five feet high. Seasickness paid some of the soldiers a visit, but it has not affected many.

Our battleship has just left us. We are ahead of time and are crawling along in order not to arrive ahead of time at our rendezvous. I'd like to stay up all night and watch for subs, but I'm too sleepy.

September 26, 1918

We entered the danger zone at 5.00 p. m. Now everybody is supposed to wear life-belts asleep, awake and at meals, and to sleep fully dressed.

There is a little tension tonight. The sea has been running high all day, with a heavy swell and white-caps. The moon continually threatens to pop through the clouds. If it does we will be at a decided disadvantage, as we will be at the mercy of any prowling U-boat. To make things seem more serious our cruiser turned tail for New York this afternoon. That leaves only the destroyer, and that has enough to do fighting the seas. However, there is no panic and no apparent fear. The only thing we're all growling about is the inconvenience of sleeping in clothes. And that's necessary.

October 3, 1918

In the middle of the afternoon of the 27th, the lookout in the crow's nest sighted the first of our escort,

three British destroyers. Never were friends more welcome. They popped up all along the horizon, coming fast. It took an hour for them all—eight—to come up. They had been spread out over a many-mile radius in order not to miss us. It certainly seemed good to see them—small, trim, lightning boats, all through us and around us.

For another night we slept with clothes on—what of the night we slept. At ten, when I got up, we were passing the hills of Ireland. The whole country seemed to be hills. It had been an exciting night for some. The high seas had washed five men overboard from the Cretic, to be picked up by a destroyer.

By noon we had sighted Scotland, and all the afternoon we sailed through the North Passage. It was a beautiful country, with me a case of love at first sight. Most beautiful of all was the Mull of Kintyre, with a lighthouse perched half-way up, and heather all down the sides. The geological formations were fascinating, cliffs, hill, dale, gulch, island. I began to think in terms of Burns and Wordsworth, and was glad I had seen at least the edge of their hills.

We passed the Graveyard of Lost Ships, another convoy, various mine-sweepers, and by night were in the Irish Sea. I wanted to stay up all night and watch the lights and the flares of the blast-furnaces, but I was too sleepy.

When I awoke—6.30 on the 29th—we were slowly steaming up the Mersey.

## Along the Highways of French History

BY PROFESSOR DESDEVEISES DU DEZERT

*To our brothers-in-arms—English and American*

### PART TWO

Although she had had four years in which to watch the approaching storm, France was taken entirely unawares by the peril of 1870. The aged Emperor could no longer concentrate his mind on a definite course. In 1866, his diplomacy had been lamentable. The visit of the King of Prussia in 1867 increased the hostility of the two men, as well as that of the two courts and of the two nations. It is said that during a stately interview, the Czar, Alexander II, offered his hand to Napoleon III, who affected not to notice it. Persigny admitted dispiritedly that "one could still touch the heart of the Emperor, but that it was impossible to affect his will power."

The nation had grown accustomed to admire itself in the persons of 300,000 soldiers recruited from the ranks of the poorest; the army became a caste, and the French "bourgeoisie" considered its duty done when it had granted the army ridiculously small pay and gorgeous uniforms. As a child, I saw the mounted Guard, and I have never forgotten those blue-clad horsemen, their glittering arms and helmets, the latter adorned with the red chenille and the tri-colored cockade. I remember the bearded sappers, formidable under their bearskin caps, their white

leather aprons covered them from head to foot, their axes glittered on their shoulders.

But when Marshal Niel asked the Deputies of the Legislature to organize obligatory military service, there were cries of terror and indignation. "You would turn all France into barracks?" No one understood; a hasty organization was voted, but it scarcely increased the country's military standing, and practically no attempt was made to enforce the new law.

The war found us without a plan of campaign, with an insufficient effective force, no organized auxiliary branches, poorly armed fortresses, a defective command and indifferent artillery. Notwithstanding all this, the imperial government went forth to war with unpardonable levity. The candidacy of a Hohenzollern prince for the Spanish throne did not seriously concern France, for the very good reason that Spain would never have tolerated a German king. In his stead ruled a prince of Savoy, a clever and accomplished man who did his utmost to win the hearts of the people, and whose reign lasted two years. That of the Hohenzollern would have lasted six months. There was nothing at which to be alarmed, and the outbreak was badly timed. Bismarck's dia-



bolical cunning and the hasty character of the French representatives worked the deed. War was declared, light-heartedly, on the 20th of July, 1870.

Forty-six days later, Napoleon III was vanquished and taken prisoner; the empress and her son, the Prince Royal, had fled; the Empire had been overthrown.

When Napoleon III sent his sword to William I of Prussia, Bismarck inquired "Whether it was the sword of France or of the Emperor," and Napoleon replied that it was his own sword only, acting as the chance sovereign that he was. If he had been possessed of the soul of an emperor, he would have negotiated and probably saved the dynasty. As I am not one of those who regret it, I am not complaining that he did not do so, but I merely mention the psychological problem in passing.

By failing to sign peace immediately after the battle of Sedan, Napoleon III delivered Paris to the Revolution. Fiery spirits proclaimed the Republic, because the Republic had saved France in 1793, but they did not know how to revive the energy of the Convention. If they had wished to assume that terrible rôle, they would not have succeeded, for their power lacked foundation. Elected as representatives of Paris to the Legislature of the Empire, they had no authority to undertake the work of a new "Comité du Salut Public." The Empire had been overthrown in six weeks, but five months of effort were required to subdue the armies hastily improvised by the Republic.

The National Defense Government did its utmost, but owing to a lack of proper support had not the necessary power. It would have been necessary, in the second week of September, to have given the people a voice to elect an assembly which could have at once passed the enactments necessary for the safety of the country; secondly, to break with all routine; thirdly, to amalgamate the militia and the army; then, not to sacrifice everything to the defense of Paris, build up earthworks as Tottleben had done at Sebastopol (and as no one now but Denfert thought of doing); to give to the partisan war as much intensity as possible, and above all, to inculcate in the entire nation the conviction that peace was possible only after a decisive victory and a complete expulsion of the enemy.

France fought hopelessly—not the best way to success—and lost. The enemy was as pitiless and stupid as usual. France was shorn of the whole of Alsace and one-third of Lorraine, and had to pay a heavy ransom. The enemy did not realize that France would never forgive Germany for maiming her so cruelly. Emile Ollivier wrote to the Emperor William a moving epistle, full of beauty and wisdom, trying to make him understand the irretrievable mistake that was being made—labor undertaken in vain, for, a worthy descendant of the great Drillmaster, the merciless Prussian amputated a part of France—and France did not forget.

The war from without was soon succeeded by civil war, the war from within. The history of the Commune is not well known. It was a mixture of patriotic

fervor, rancor against blundering and ineffectual powers, the stupidity common in general to the multitude. Some became befuddled with talk, others with more tangible frenzies. The scum of the population rose to the surface, evil instincts came to light, all the false notes formed a tremendous "tutti." Folly seems to have held full sway—and the result of it all was the shedding of blood.

Perhaps with a calmer spirit, more flexible and more humane, it would have been possible to end the drama in comedy. The Commune was more vicious than fierce, and, moreover, was not incorruptible. It is said that Thiers wished to maintain the principles and bring back the popularity of the army by making use of it to establish order. It is certainly an inspiration of politics! It would perhaps have been better to compromise, to let the passions die away and spare the shedding of blood, to wish peace instead of war! Through what fearful times the France of those days passed! Paris was burning! The "Tuileries" and the "Hôtel de Ville" were on fire! There were the massacre of the hostages and the resistance of the confederates at the Père Lachaise cemetery! And in the forts in the east of France, still occupied by the enemy, German officers were revelling, drinking champagne in the company of courtesans!

All Europe believed that France was in her death-throes—but she did not die. Like an ant whose hill has been overthrown, she set to work again. The theatres reopened in August; "La Timbale d'Argent" had a tremendous success. Everyone hastened to make up for the ten months' losses caused by recent events. The first problem to be solved was that of freeing the territory. It would have been fairer to let the burden weigh upon the generation which had accepted the war; Thiers preferred to consolidate the debt. Two tremendous loans—more than 1600 millions sterling—obtained evacuation from the month of September, 1873. Financiers congratulated each other and the Germans promised themselves to be even more exacting next time. The interest of this ransom has been costing us at least 320 millions sterling for forty-four years.

The country had hardly been saved when political dissension began to split it up again. France, which in May, 1870, had given 7,500,000 votes for the Empire, in February, 1871, elected a monarchical and clerical assembly, another edition of the Legislative Assembly in 1849. Thiers tried in vain to make it understand that "it is still the Republic that divides us least." No one listened to him, and on the 24th of May he was overthrown by the monarchists. He is said to have been replaced, for a few hours, by the Duke d'Aumale, but the Bonapartists made it known that if this candidacy were maintained, they would go over, bag and baggage, to the republican camp. The leaders of the monarchists then accepted Marshal MacMahon as president of the Republic.

When the Germans had evacuated the country, the royalist plotting began again, with greater force than ever. The question of the flag caused everything to miscarry. The Count de Chambord wrapped himself



up in the white flag. Pope Pius IX, as skeptical for the things of this earth as he was firm in his belief in those of the next, exclaimed disdainfully: "What a fuss about a *serviette*!" Two years later, the force of events obliged the Monarchist Assembly to vote the Republican constitution of 1875, the tenth constitutional act since the Revolution.

One may say that, since 1875, France has been really governed by her representatives. Neither the parliamentary Coup d'Etat of May 16, 1878, nor the intrigues of the Boulangistes have altered the legal character of the government. The French nation rules by its representatives, who are elected by universal suffrage. It has a better right than an absolute ruler to be proud of the great things it has done. It cannot throw the responsibility of its mistakes on the shoulders of outsiders, for nothing is done without its own leave and consent.

If we compare the 39 years of democratic government to the 55 years of monarchic government preceding them, it certainly looks as if the advantage lay on the side of democracy. France can point with pride to the repair of our national strength, the conquest of our colonial empire, the impulse given to public education and public charities, the development of wealth, the glory of art and literature. In spite of her misfortunes, of her mistakes, of her enemies, France has remained a great nation. Many a time have I experienced the moving sensation of feeling myself a citizen of one of the noblest nations in the world.

To the praise of the French middle classes it must be said that since 1870 they have understood their duty, accepted compulsory military service, and remained faithful to this manly decision, since the passing of the law in 1872, until the passing of three years' military service a few months before the war.

In thirteen years (1880-1893), France conquered Tunisia, Tonquin, Annam, Dahomey, Madagascar, the Congo, and the Soudan. The conquest of Morocco, almost accomplished today, has completed her African empire. Covering a surface of eleven million square kilometres (20 times as large as France), our colonies have a round population of 49 million inhabitants who live under the protection of our flag.

The history of our distant conquests forms an admirable epic, likely to tempt many a historian. The names of Courbet, Négrier, Marchand, Gallieni, Gouraud, Liautey, have become intensely popular. Their glory has often solaced us in our misfortunes and quickened our hopes. Our colonization has been often attacked and our influence calumniated, but it seems to me that what we are now witnessing justifies us entirely. Morocco, hardly subjugated, has sent us magnificent troops which are a terror to the enemy. Our Algerian troops once more give proof of their storied valor. Annamites and Malgaches fight eagerly for the mysterious country which has established order for them, at the same time respecting their laws and customs. Is it to be believed that France would have found such a willing aid among these conquered races if she had behaved so harshly towards them? If they shed their blood for her, it is because they

understand that her guardianship is of value to them and that the ruling hand is that of a tender mother. Who would dare to maintain that the help of the colonies has counted for nothing in our salvation? Is it known that, on the eve of the battle of the Marne, the troops of Morocco held, all day long, at the gates of Meaux and prevented the enemy from entering?

The educational work of the Republic has been very extensive and called into operation all forces for the well-being of the nation. If the France of 1914 arose with so much enthusiasm, if the France of 1918 holds as resolutely as she does, this sense of duty was well inculcated by the national education. I dare say, bringing to mind a famous saying, that it is the French schoolmaster who has prepared the dauntless army of the trenches.

As for the scientific work of the University of France, we may find the balance sheet in the two volumes published by the Minister of Education on the occasion of the World's Exposition at San Francisco. Those most prejudiced against the University will be obliged to recognize the tremendous rôle played by it in scientific development in France, for the last half century. The University has worked—and worked well. To the honor of our country must be ascribed, apart from scientific development, the progress of charitable institutions, of "works of social justice," as they are called nowadays, formerly called "works of charity," before we had forgotten that charity means love.

Those in all ranks of poverty are looked after: the child unborn, the child at every age, the youth, the laborer, the wounded, the sick and the infirm find charitable organizations open to them all; these are continually developing, for the promoters of the great work are never daunted by its enormity. The Church of France may also lay claim to an important share in the honor of this work.

The nation has certainly gained in wealth. Its railway systems have doubled since 1870; 300,000 kilometres of road have been built. The harbors of Dunkirk, Havre, Rouen, Paris, Honfleur, Caen, Cherbourg, Brest, La Palisse, Bordeaux, Bayonne, Cette and Marseilles, have been enlarged and their tonnage has attained proportions hitherto unknown.

Paris ranks as the first port of France with a traffic of ten million tons. In round terms, our foreign trade has increased to £600,000,000 in 1910, an increase of £200,000,000 over 1900. Profound calculations have established that France received, in the ten years from 1903 to 1913, £920,000,000 from abroad. She was paying an annual budget of £220,000,000 more readily than the kingdom of France of 1789 paid the modest budget of £20,000,000.

France has remained the "Sacred Grove beloved of the Muses and the Spirit of the Fine Arts." The French world of letters has shone with no less brilliance than during the preceding period. Poetry counts among its ranks such masters as Coppée, Sully-Prudhomme, Richepin, Verlaine, de Hérédia, Edmond Rostand. The novel gives us the names of Zola, Daudet, Loti, Villiers de l'Isle-Adam, Anatole

France, Bourget, and many others. Criticism has been revived with Jules Lamaître and Brunetière, Faguet and Lanson. Among the historians are Taine, Lavissee, Sorel, Masson. Philosophy has given us Bergson, a thinker of world-wide reputation.

The world of art shows a wonderful diversity. Paris has been greatly beautified in the last forty years. The old quarters seem poor and mean beside the regal city which now surrounds them. The perspective from the Bridge of Alexander III, the Large and the Small Palaces, the Sorbonne, the "Hôtel de Ville" (Town Hall), the Church of the Sacred Heart (of Jesus), bear witness to the activity and genius of our architects.

Never, since the glorious days of Greece, has the world of sculpture seen a pleiad comparable to the present French school: Dalou, Rodin, Falguière, Chapu, Dubois, Fremiet, Meroi, Bartolomé; their very names resound their glory. Painting, released from the prejudices of any one school, has undertaken the inordinate task of painting light itself, of making it vibrate and live before our eyes. Painting has bent herself to every style, she has shown to us, for the first time, delicate points of shape and color, shades of feeling and tenderness, which no brush had ever before tried to depict. Never was art more complex, more alive!

In music, have not Massenet, Saint-Saëns, César Franck, found harmonies of which no one before them had dreamed?

Now that I have stated my admiration for our country and our own times, may I be allowed to look at the shady side of the picture, with the same sincerity and the same passionate regard for truth? It may be as well to indicate the gaps in our present civilization, the causes of our unhappiness of today, the inevitable fatalities of tomorrow.

Let us try, for once, to be sincere with ourselves, to leave the lies hemming us in on every side, to purify the ambient air, to know ourselves for what we are. Truth alone is useful, truth alone is noble. The errors and mistakes of France arise from her impulsive and sentimental temperament, her changing and many-sided disposition. She has above all suffered from a conflict of opinions whose source must be found in the culture which for a century and a half she has been assimilating, and which she has not yet succeeded in conforming to her own genius.

To my mind, the genius of France is that of mysticism, a need of creating an exterior and idealistic force which she obeys. For a long time religious faith held this rôle. The Revolution worked wonders in the name of humanity. The best of what modern France has done she has accomplished as the quickener of spirits and the sower of ideas. Unfortunately, her education is founded too exclusively upon the spirit of criticism, and this has tended to lessen the part played by faith and enthusiasm. Criticism is an indispensable means for arriving at the knowledge of scientific truth, but scientific truth is not the whole. Above it soar the great truths accessible only to metaphysical speculations. The sphere of intuition ex-

ceeds that of reasoning and calculation. Matter may be weighed out, evaluated literally; it lends itself to all the experiments which it pleases the scholar to perform.

We may affirm that the soul exists, but we cannot prove it; at least, by any means of physics, chemistry, or mathematics. We may affirm that moral responsibility exists, but we cannot prove it. The same is true of Duty: It is so because it is so. To name it is to define it, and to accept it as an axiom is to discover at once the meaning and the prospect of life. To reject it is to fall back into unreasoning barbarity. Modern criticism pretends to deny the existence of all that is not proved by scientific inquiry, all that scientific reasoning and calculations are powerless to reach. From this results a deep and lasting disturbance in the French soul which undoubtedly lessens the force and the worth of its energy. Truth lies in the alliance of the two tendencies, in the union of the spirit of speculation and the scientific spirit, in the harmony between the real and the ideal. In a recent speech, the President of the Chamber of Deputies defined, in a singularly fortunate way, the share to be assigned to each of the elements of our understanding:

"The thought which has no respect for faith is not truly free; the religious belief which infringes on liberty loses its power instead of increasing it. He who despises the power of religion lays himself open to unexpected deceptions, and he who would impose a religion alters its very sources."

It is very unfortunate for France that she has not recognized these sound ideas. Believers have ranged themselves on one side, critics on the other, and the two camps have lost much precious time in battling with and vilifying each other, like ignorant savages, regardless of the fact that their country and its fate were at stake.

The believer naturally recalls the time when his authority was supreme, when his power surpassed that of his opponents, when he shut their mouths at any time he wished. His speech has been embittered by disappointments, he has dreamt of impossible restorations, and given the enemy camp the idea that he will never accept the new order. The critic has exaggerated the strength of his arguments, he has proclaimed for the opposition an insulting and by no means justifiable scorn. In proportion as his success and his power have increased, he has become more extreme, more selfish, more brutal. Power has not improved him. A new specimen has appeared, ill-grown and detestable; the "skeptical sectarian," who to all the negations of the critic, has added the fanaticism of the believer. Thus the country has been divided into two parts which have followed their own paths.

The contest has left bitter memories, mourning, and ruin. It has afforded disagreeable sights, and has certainly added nothing to the country's strength. Yet the spirit of criticism has increased the philosophical value of modern French thought. As opposed to our thinkers, those of other countries appear childish or uncivilized. The Englishman, and even the American, original and inspiring as they are, baffle us with their

truisms and their candor. The German makes us indignant at the brutality of his ideas, his detestable worship of strength, his inability to leave himself, to see anything but the interest of Germany. The other nations are but intellectual dependents of France, Germany, or the Anglo-Saxon race. None of them can take away from us the palm for untrammelled speculation.

French thought, guided by the ready pen of Renan, deals with prejudices and accepted opinions, handles them with care of a connoisseur, makes them sound hollow, pulls them to pieces, reduces them to powder. The conjuror has taken hold of an idea, and in his skilful hands it has dwindled away, it is reduced to nothing, it disappears entirely under the clever handling and the indulgent and ironic smile of the dilettante.

Not all men possess the magical art of Renan, although many have his dissolving power, and have used it with a hateful joy which was never characteristic of him. In their train has followed, unceasingly, the mob of the ignorant and the passionate. Renan wrote: "It may be that truth is painful. What of it? Nothing can be done. It is painful." Remy de Gourmont tells us that "One knows so many things that one discovers that one knows nothing. One supposes and proposes, but one does not assert. Pilate's saying, so full of charm and disenchantment: 'What is truth? is on the lips of all. There are only habits, but no longer principles. One may doubt everything, and one takes an oath only with an evasive gesture.' He concludes that 'Life is everything and nothing, that it is magnificent and ridiculous!'"

These are the diversions of the subtle mind which admires life as it would a glittering gem. The vulgar horde has not such refined tastes, and once taught to doubt, it denies everything with steadfast assurance and at once makes the following deductions:

"If life is at once nothing and the sum total of man, plague take all restraint and anxiety, and on with pleasure!"

The spirit of criticism, which shatters all idols, leads, in the end, to moral slackness, lack of discipline, and the supremacy of instinct over self-control. It is observed, and with truth, that man has never followed a very straight path at any known time, and that it is inexpedient to award the palm of righteousness to any one period. Our century is far from perfect, but was the Second Empire so exemplary, the Directoire so virtuous, the reign of Louis XV so commendable? M. Lavissee maintains that the vices of a monarch concern history only when these vices affect the will power of that monarch. So, according to him, our days would have a right to the historian's indulgence, for we have done great things. The severest moralist cannot deny that France has been worthy of admiration from every point of view during the past four years. If she has fought so fiercely and held so well, it is because her faults are on the surface only and do not undermine the depths of the nation. The bark might be shiny, but at the heart the noble tree was perfectly healthy.

There is truth in this, but it does not deny the fact that, if France, even victorious, wishes to live after the war, she should wage a desperate war against alcoholism, pornography, tuberculosis, depopulation. To treat with these internal scourges would be treachery indeed.

The foreign policy of France has been distinguished by the same weaknesses as her conduct at home. It is curious, and at the same time sad, to state how badly this nation, so critical, so clever in discerning the least flaw or the least ridicule in another nation, has understood her own interests, and how badly she has steered her course amid international ravalries.

The defeat of 1870 has weighed very heavily on France. She has not felt herself to have been conquered by accident, but she has had the feeling of having been crushed, she has had a vague remorse of having despaired too soon, of having let go two of her priceless provinces too easily, of not having done her whole duty. If France had thoroughly understood the lesson, she would have prepared her revenge at once and taken it with the least possible delay, as complete and definite as Gambetta had imagined it. She did not venture to find out where her real interest lay. She withdrew into herself, took the defensive, tested all the delights of peace, as if that peace were to last.

However, during the first years which followed the liberation of her territory, France recuperated with such speed that the German government became alarmed, and Von Moltke and Bismarck thought seriously of recommencing war. In 1875 it was almost declared. Von Moltke stated: "I wish for war, as a soldier, a German, and a Christian." This abominable speech, worthy of Tartuffe, ranges the Field Marshal on the lowest rung of the ladder morally. The unexpected interference of Russia and England saved us. Who can tell if, with a little more skill, the triple Entente could not have been formed from that moment? But we were so little skilful that we had already succeeded in alienating Italy from us.

Peace continued. "See how France is simmering!" said Bismarck, disdainfully. In 1880 he succeeded in embroiling us with Italy by directing us to Tunis. He was delighted to see us embark for Tonquin a little later. He did not understand that, one day, Germany would find our Tunisians and our Tonkinese on the field of battle, and would envy us our colonial empire. In 1887 there was another alarm given. Germany thought the occasion favorable to making a sudden attack on France, and the Schnoebele affair all but precipitated war. Face to face with danger, the country pulled itself together. President Grévy showed judgment and dignity. The snare was so obviously proved that the German emperor had to order Schnoebele to be released and to apologize to our government. "Do not put me again under the necessity of making an apology to those people," he said to Bismarck, with real displeasure. The Schnoebele incident once settled, fifteen years passed without further friction between France and Germany.

Free as she had never been before, prosperous, victorious, always the queen of art and literature, as



was proved by the triumphant exhibition of 1889 and the gigantic Fair of 1900, France fell asleep. By never speaking of revenge, she grew to forget the enemy. It was weakness and slackness, but there was still a reasonable path to follow in this regard. Since the policy of pursuing the ideal seemed too lofty and too dangerous for the majority of the nation, since she preferred that of self-interest and was sacrificing to the latter the wish to reclaim her conquered provinces, interest rightly understood advised going on to the very end. Such a course was not heroic, but it could be of advantage. German hegemony was accepted, to be sure, but still we were unfriendly with Germany and allied ourselves with Russia. It was right to be allied against the Teuton miscreant, but wrong to commit ourselves to Russia without recall, and to sacrifice to her the traditional influence of France in the Orient. It was evidently believed that the Franco-Russian alliance would make war forever impossible; we should have known that the Russian alliance would, one day, inevitably lead to war.

France committed the unpardonable imprudence of thwarting the views of England. The humiliation laid on her at Pashoda showed what it costs to tread on the lion's tail when not determined to face him. The painful lesson she received there did France good. She dealt honestly with England, gave up claim to Egypt (which she had, moreover, abandoned sixteen years before) and obtained a free hand in Morocco. The kindly wisdom of Edward VII reconciled France and England, almost at grips on account of our muddling. But our muddlers forgot to make the Anglo-French pact officially known to Germany, and William II, profiting by the difficulties of Russia

which he himself had urged in the direction of the Orient, undertook suddenly the defense of Morocco.

More by luck than by good management, Morocco remained ours; but in return for having been overhasty, we had to abandon a part of the French Congo to Germany in 1911. "The first fruits of the season cost dear," said M. Van Kinderwachter, who succeeded in obtaining this splendid ransom for his country. France must not be reproached for not having drawn sword at that time. Our army was not then ready to battle with Germany, but if we were right not to make war, we were wrong not to have been prepared for it.

When the Balkan wars started, showing the hand of Germany, France felt the necessity of looking to her defence; she voted the three years' military service and also important sums of money to put in order her material of war. It is to be regretted that experts did not know enough to grasp the need of heavy artillery, to develop aviation, to increase the number of machine guns, nor to foresee the invasion through Belgium, to put in condition our fortresses in the north, the entrenchments of Laon, La Fère, Soissons, Rheims, and the fortified camp around Paris. We cannot tell what this negligence has cost us.

France, who did not wish to cultivate hatred, who did not wish for war, and who has a horror of bloodshed, faced for four years the enemy of humanity. She fought not only for her own life, but for the liberty of mankind. She has astonished the world by her courage, her tenacity, her patience, and her heroic silence. France remains the champion of the ideal, the soldier of the Lord.

## Oversea Lands and the Development of English Natural Science

JAMES E. GILLESPIE, PH.D., UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

Natural science in the modern sense of the word had its beginnings during the later sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries when men's minds were awakened and enthused by the vision of the natural phenomena of recently-discovered lands beyond the seas. In England, Sir Francis Bacon, Gerard, Parkinson, Sloan, Petiver and many others had been encouraged and led to study the natural world by the constant stores of "rarities" brought in rather a haphazard manner by many a navigator, trader and colonist. In place of a medieval, blind reliance upon authority, the startling variety of new phenomena forced observation and study of existing nature. What was more, not only the scientists, but many of the people of the day became intensely interested and sympathetic with all attempts to unravel the mysteries of a rediscovered nature. Indeed, it became the fad to form gardens of exotic herbs and make collections of natural objects brought from over the seas. Then came attempts to systematize, study the uses and perform experiments with what had been col-

lected, to which at the end of the seventeenth century was added the development of more careful systems of statistics and mathematical measurements.

For long the knowledge collected was ill-arranged, and due to the credulity of an age with a craving for and a disposal to believe in the novel, since so much which had not been suspected, or had been merely dreamed was now being found true, there was much need for careful criticism and observation. Attempts, often successful, to obtain accurate information were made by the newly-created Royal Society which sent queries for information into various parts of the world and invited the dispatch of collections to it for further study. The efforts of such men as Sloan, Petiver and Ray should likewise not be ignored.<sup>1</sup>

With the eighteenth century a period is reached

<sup>1</sup>For a detailed discussion and for illustrations of the preceding statements see J. E. Gillespie, *The Influence of Oversea Expansion on England to 1700*, p. 207 et seq. (Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, Vol. XCI).



when scientific investigation is better organized. The observation of oversea fauna and flora and the collection of specimens is no longer merely left to the ship-captain or traveler, but a continual stream of trained herbalists, physicians and other scientific men are sent into every part of the world to investigate definite problems and secure collections with the utmost care. Besides, scientists arose powerful enough to win the notice of the government and receive commission and aid from it to pursue their investigations. George the Third, of England, set the example in the promotion of these valuable enterprises when he sent out the expeditions of Byron, Wallis and Carteret in 1760, and later by dispatching those of Bougainville, Cook, Forster and others. In this manner natural historical treasures were collected from every part of the world.

The great garden which was established early in the eighteenth century at Kew became a center for botanical study and investigation. From Kew trained collectors were sent to all parts of the earth to investigate its flora. Many of these resided as gardeners or physicians in the colonies, some were given government grants to carry on their work. Large collections of strange plants were thus sent to the garden, where it was customary to keep them for a year after they had flowered, and then to distribute them to learned societies and to eminent men. Gardeners for the colonies were trained at Kew, and experiments were made upon plants most suitable for cultivation in particular colonies.

This policy of mutual helpfulness was originally conceived by Sir Joseph Banks in the eighteenth century, and then extended and brought to its full fruition under Sir Joseph Dalton Hooker, who was for so many years during the nineteenth century, in charge of the garden. European plants were soon received by Mauritius, New South Wales, St. Vincent, Jamaica, Trinidad and Calcutta, and in 1869, others largely of economic value were sent from Kew to Natal, Cape Town, Singapore, Sierra Leone and Rio de Janeiro. Somewhat earlier, in 1860-62, the plant from which quinine is derived was brought from Peru by Sir Clements Markham, nursed for a while at Kew, and from there sent to India. Seeds of the best Manila and Havana tobacco were delivered to all English colonies suited to their cultivation. Many American trees, especially from California and the Rocky Mountains, were secured and sent from the gardens to the colonies, while in 1872 much Liberian and Cape Coast coffee was shipped from there to the coffee-growing British possessions. Likewise, South American rubber plants were introduced through this agency into India. To aid the culture of silk in Australia, Kew sent them the best kinds of mulberries used in Kashmir and India.

A still more remarkable instance of the usefulness of the garden was the planting of the Island of Ascension with plants and shrubs. Before this was done there was but one tree and no shrubs upon the island. Kew supplied seeds and living plants for a number of years in succession until Ascension presented a very different appearance.

A further work carried on at Kew which led both to the advancement of natural science and to practical benefits for colonial agriculture was the investigation concerning the diseases of tropical plants and animals. Thus, reports concerning the disease of the opium poppy were transmitted to Kew from India. Correspondence was carried on with the local and home governments concerning the diseases from which coffee had been suffering in India, Natal, Ceylon and other colonies. The government of Queensland was informed concerning the results of investigations into the origin and nature of the sugar-cane disease. Reports were also made at Kew in 1878 concerning a beetle very destructive of grape-vines imported into the island of Ascension from South Africa and concerning an insect very harmful to the cocoanut in Zanzibar. Thus Kew became useful as a government agency of research and supply for the whole empire, and science was greatly promoted by the careful studies carried on there.

But Kew's contact with other lands did not stop with the empire. Other countries of Europe were also favored by that garden, for in 1797, two hundred and thirty species of plants were sent from there to the Grand Duchess of Russia, and after the peace of 1814, Professors Wendland, of Hanover, Fischer, of St. Petersburg, Martins, of Munich, Link and Otto, of Berlin, Reinhardt, of Leyden, and Sagasca, of Madrid, visited Kew from time to time and secured many specimens from it for their gardens. Later, exotics were received from these foreign gardens. Likewise, valuable exchanges were made with the Belgian nurseries and the Imperial Gardens at Paris, and the Dutch naturalist, Dr. de Vriese, sent some very interesting collections from Java and other Dutch East Indian possessions.

Thus the remarkable botanic garden at Kew came to be ranked as the richest in the world. Its original area was less than twenty acres, but it finally came to have six hundred and fifty acres included under its director's control. Three museums, a vast herbarium and a library were established to carry on its work. A large staff of scientific experts and artists was required, while the garden staff came to number more than one hundred men. Correspondence was constantly maintained with botanists all over the world and with the Indian and Colonial offices.

A clearer idea of what part the fauna and flora of oversea lands played and continued to play in the progress of English science, may be gained by a perusal of the lives of a few of the most eminent English naturalists living during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. First the name of Sir Joseph Banks is suggested by his wide renown as a naturalist and his ability in inspiring with scientific enthusiasm every one with whom he came in contact, even George III.

Banks early displayed his interest in the natural phenomena of America by going in 1766 to Newfoundland and gathering extensive collections of plants, birds and fish, and making observations concerning the manners and customs of the natives. Two years later

an opportunity arose for him to travel around the world. Due to the desire of the Royal Society to secure an accurate observation of the Transit of Venus in 1769, expeditions were sent to Madras, Hudson's Bay and the South Seas. Banks was invited to accompany the latter expedition in the capacity of naturalist. The ship under the command of Captain James Cook touched at Madeira, Rio Janeiro, Tierra del Fuego, New Zealand, Australia, Batavia and Cape of Good Hope. Besides realizing the main purpose of the voyage many additions to geographical knowledge were made and European knowledge of tropical and subtropical plants, birds, animals and fishes was vastly increased.

Banks was so enthused by the new wonders of nature which were unearthed in this remarkable voyage and by the two following voyages led by Captain Cook, that he succeeded in inspiring everyone around him with zeal for scientific knowledge. Through him many a medical man stationed in a distant colony or trading post, still more men of all classes of life whose lot it was to wander in foreign lands were aroused to make careful observations and thus add to the knowledge of natural science. Soon in nearly every part of the world there was someone in touch with the celebrated patron of the natural sciences. As a result, during the reign of George III, nearly seven thousand new exotics were introduced into England, most of which were sent home by Banks's plant collectors.

Under the new interest in nature, horticulture became unreservedly popular. Such rich supplies of new or rare plants were provided and the opportunity was so made use of, that England took the lead in systematic botany. Likewise large numbers of epiphytic orchids were now brought from India, Australia and Malaya and led to a very special advance "in the knowledge of what is, in many ways, the most interesting group of plants on the face of the earth—the Orchidaceæ."

"The 'fancying' instinct, latent in every Englishman and curiously characteristic of the race, was evoked by the bizarre form of these plants. Orchid-growing became the hobby of the well-to-do. Gardeners with no knowledge of science and regardless of textbook dicta on sterility, proceeded to raise the most marvelous series of hybrids—bigeneric, trigeneric, multigeneric—which any sane and scholastic botanist would have declared to be impossible." Such botanists of the day as Brown, Blume and Lindley were led to earnest endeavors to discover clues to the classification of these plants.

Banks' interests were still broader than have yet been mentioned for they not only embraced the natural world of plants and animals, but led into the realm of philosophic discussion as to the relations and development of mankind. As will be seen with later naturalists, these studies of the exotic world led inevitably to the realization of evolution. A party of Esquimos brought to London in 1772-73 led Banks to a consideration of the relations of Esquimos with other races and formed the subject of many scholarly dis-

cussions with his friends. One of them particularly, Dr. William Robertson, desired Banks to inform him concerning all the observations of interest he had made upon men in primitive stages of culture and drew his attention to Lord Monboddo's speculations concerning the Simian ancestry of mankind. On another occasion, Banks had the pleasure of introducing to English society an Otaheitan islander.

Sir Joseph Dalton Hooker furnishes a still more striking example of the spirit of scientific inquiry aroused by exploration. While in England, he was director of the vast garden and other enterprises centered at Kew. At one time or another Hooker managed to touch upon every great continental area of the earth's surface as well as upon many isolated islands. For four years he was with Ross in Antarctic exploration, also visiting on these voyages Ascension, St. Helena, the Cape, New Zealand, Australia, Tasmania, Tierra del Fuego and the Falkland Islands. Upon his return he set out for the Himalayas for a study of tropical flora and fauna. Later he went to Syria and then Morocco, and finally joined the United States geological survey and visited the Rocky Mountains of Colorado and Utah. Hooker, as was the case with Darwin and Wallace, undertook these journeys not merely with an aim to amassing great quantities of material and of opening up new regions to scientific knowledge, but he had definite problems for which he was searching in all parts of the world for the solution. The problem of distribution of living forms over the surface of the earth, the causes of the variety of flora and fauna which characterized its different regions, especially drew his attention and led finally to conclusions which blended with those of Darwin as to the origin of species.

As a fitting conclusion let us see how the theory of evolution as advanced by Darwin and Wallace was suggested through the influence of oversea natural phenomena. It was due to Darwin's voyage as a naturalist on the "Beagle" to South America and the Pacific islands, which lasted from December 27, 1831, to October 2, 1836, that he became the great scientific leader that he later proved to be. Leaving England with but a smattering of science, he returned a successful collector, a brilliant geologist and with a wide knowledge of zoology. He himself said of the voyage that it "has been by far the most important event of my life, and determined my whole career." While on this voyage the idea of evolution from an original type instead of a special creation for each species was forced upon him by the animal and bird life and the fossils which he discovered on the Galapagos Archipelago. "It was most striking," he says, "to be surrounded by new birds, new reptiles, new shells, new insects, new plants, and yet by innumerable trifling details of structure and even by the tones of the voice and plumage of the birds, to have the temperate plains of Patagonia, or the hot dry deserts of Northern Chile, vividly brought before my eyes."

This similarity of type between distinct species in the continent and in the adjoining islands, and the

fact that existing species were closely similar to fossil species in the same area led him to wonder why this geographical and geological relationship should exist if species were not derived from each other. This proved the starting point in his thinking upon the subject of evolution. After a long searching among agricultural and horticultural books following the lead of the ideas suggested by his discoveries upon the Galapagos he came to see "the way in which new varieties became exquisitely adapted to the external conditions of life and to surrounding beings."

His travels had led to constant thought upon the causes of the wonderful variety in nature and of the means by which it had been secured, causing him to make careful studies of structure and resemblance. It is interesting to note that from the beginning of the sixteenth and seventeenth century discoveries in the new lands, this idea of wonderful variety in nature, as one seventeenth century narrator expresses it, "worlds of varieties in that diversified world," had been uppermost in travelers' and voyagers' minds. It had constantly led to much speculation as to the origin of such a varied creation. In fact European man for some

time had been disinclined to believe and somewhat shocked at the assertion that the New World was peopled with beings like himself, for how could the Adam theory of creation then be believed since the wide seas would have prevented the first man's descendants from crossing. Darwin, living several centuries later, and confronted with the same startling problems of nature was destined to administer a more profound shock to churchmen by the evolutionary theory which the oversea world gradually forced him to adopt.

Alfred Russel Wallace, Darwin's friend, making his great collections of flora and fauna in the distant Malay Archipelago was almost simultaneously forced to a like conclusion as that of Darwin regarding evolution through the vast variety of forms and yet similarity of species. Sir Joseph Hooker, as has been seen, was likewise through his researches in every part of the world led to agree with Darwin and Wallace. Thus was English natural science brought to a fitting climax in its development through the influences exerted by the discoveries in oversea lands.

## The Cult of the Dead in Ancient Egypt

BY ANNA LAURA HOLBROOK

The people of ancient Egypt are of great interest to the later ages because so early in history they had a civilization which was far in advance of that of any other people of that age. Their writing, their pottery, their buildings all showed an advanced stage of civilization. But such features of civilization might be found in a greater or less degree among many of the early peoples. There was one thing, however, peculiar to the Egyptians of which they made the greatest importance and that was the cult of the dead. No other people carried this work to such a degree as did the Egyptians. And since both their buildings and their writings were involved in the carrying out of this idea, perhaps there is nothing to be studied in early Egyptian life which is of more interest than this. For because of their care of the dead, their endeavors to make their tombs eternal, to preserve the bodies of the dead, and their custom of writing inscriptions on the tombs themselves, the people of modern times are able, with comparatively little difficulty, to find out the ideas, customs and beliefs of the people of ancient Egypt.

Among the religions of the early peoples a belief in a life hereafter was very common. But no people devoted so much thought as to what that life might be, nor carried their preparations and provisions for that life to such an extent as did the Egyptians. Their very houses they called *hostelries* owing to the short time during which they inhabited them, while they called the tombs eternal dwelling places, and in some of the most ancient inscriptions the coffin is called the chest of the living. And since death, rather than life, was the thing emphasized by the Egyptians, the care of the dead and the worship of the deceased

came to be the most prominent thing in the Egyptian religion.

Perhaps the reason why so much care was devoted to the dead was because of the belief of the Egyptians in the *ka* or double. Man was not a simple individuality to them ever. He consisted of at least three parts, the body, the soul and the *genius*, usually called the ghost or double. Of these three, the *ka*, or double, was the most important, since it was regarded as an independent spiritual being, living within man and through its presence bestowing upon him, protection, intelligence, purity, health and vigor. The *ka* was considered as having grown up with a man and as never leaving him. After a man's death, just as during his lifetime, the *ka* was still supposed to be the representative of his human personality. This double, the Egyptians believed, could be hungry and thirsty and could prowl around, thus not allowing its family to forget its existence. And it was because of the needs which this double could feel, for this disembodied personality of the individual was supposed to be provided with a material form and substance, that the Egyptians held such elaborate ceremonies at the death of a man and endeavored, by laying in the tomb all the various provisions of which the double might stand in need, to prevent his visitations to the relatives on earth. Funeral sacrifices and the regular cults of the dead originated in these objects.

The tomb was of so much importance to the Egyptians that if they had the means they had them constructed during their life. The object was to make them as strong and enduring as possible and for this reason many were built in the rocks to avoid the inundation of the Nile. The Egyptian tomb consisted of



three essential parts, a chamber above the ground, entered by a door which appears to have always remained open, and into which room the friends of the dead could come and give offerings; a corridor, now commonly known as the *serdab*, in the interior of the masonry, which contained statues of the deceased; and lastly, a pit, or well, sunk to a considerable depth through the rock which contained the sarcophagus of the dead. The walls of the chamber were usually covered with pictures and inscriptions. As a rule they relate to the tomb and the offerings to the dead; sometimes they were representations of all the dead man had loved on earth, the occupations in which he had taken particular pleasure. But the main reason for these pictures and inscriptions was because of their belief in the material needs of the *ka*, after death. It was imagined that the things thus reproduced pictorially, as by a charm, continued to exist and that the dead man was able to partake of the food and of the pleasures pictured in the tomb. The inscriptions, too, were supposed to have a magical effect and the Egyptians thought that whatever they willed the *ka* to have in these writings, that the *ka* actually had. For the same reason, namely that the *ka* might be happy, a statue of the dead was placed in the corridor so that the *ka* whenever he wished could enter this statue and have the external appearance which he had when on earth. But the most important part of the tomb was the so-called false door which faced the east and by which the *ka* was supposed to enter and leave as he desired. This was covered with inscriptions, and at its base was a table upon which the votive offerings were placed. The *ka* could thus easily partake of them. The greatest importance was attached to the permanence of the tomb, to the continuance of the religious ceremonies and to the prayers of passers-by. Many inscriptions called upon the passers-by to invoke the god in behalf of the departed.

If it was so important that the tomb should be rendered enduring for the benefit of the *ka*, it was equally important that the body of the deceased, the real dwelling of the *ka*, should likewise be carefully preserved in order that the *ka* might enter into it and thus resume its former form whenever it might desire. In order to accomplish this, the Egyptians developed the custom of preserving the body by the process of mummification and through much practice they carried this art to a high degree of excellence. It was a complicated process and in nearly every case was done by professional men. The embalming and bandaging of the body took much time, for the internal organs of the body were removed, the blood released from the veins and the body placed in a solution. Fragrant spices and ointments were placed in the body, and then the body was carefully bandaged, even the face. Of the organs removed, the heart and viscera were considered of great importance and these were placed in jars and sealed. These jars were usually four in number and had on the top the symbol of the god supposed to have special protection over that part of the body. The heart was particularly well cared for,

as that had to appear before the gods in the lower world and vindicate itself.

The Egyptians had strange beliefs as to the adventures of the dead in the other world. They had to go through many trials and difficulties before they could appear before the great god Osiris and the forty-two judges and plead innocent. In order to pass safely through these trials it was necessary to know many magical formulæ, and the Egyptians spent much time during life memorizing these sayings. Lest the dead should forget them, chapters of this book of formulæ, which was called the Book of the Dead, were rolled up within the bandages of the mummy. For it was believed that if the double obeyed the book in all details he would reach his goal without fail. The Egyptians also thought that in the next world there would be work to do and fields to till the same as in this world, and so with much care and forethought, they did up with the mummy little images of men which they believed would come to life in the next world and be the servants of the dead and do his labor for him. Lest, after all these precautions, something should be wanting for the happiness and repose of the deceased, there were still amulets which could protect him from all harm. Little models of wands, or papyrus rolls, amulets for the fingers, sacred eyes of Horus and other things were laid by the side of the mummy or were hung on a chain around its neck. Thus in every conceivable way mourners for the dead took pains to secure the deceased from future evil and to render his body as lasting as the tomb.

As the preparation of the mummy was a most elaborate process, so was the actual funeral itself. The mummy had to go on a journey before being placed in its final resting place. It must first go to Abydos, the native place of Osiris, the god of the dead. The mummy was wrapped in embroidered linen, placed in a coffin and brought on board a boat to Abydos. The coffin, contained in a great painted case, covered with flowers was placed on a richly decorated boat. The funerary priest made offerings and burned incense before the mummy. In a second boat went the women loudly lamenting, while in a third and fourth boat went the male relatives and friends of the deceased. When the barges arrived at the western shore of the Nile, the real funeral procession began. The coffin was placed on a sledge drawn by oxen. The men walked in front followed by the women. When the procession arrived at the tomb, elaborate ceremonies took place. The mystical opening of the mouth of the deceased, the pouring out of water before him, the recitations of the priests and the offerings of incense were among the number. The main object of all these proceedings was the restoration of all bodily functions to the mummy preparatory to the long journey which lay before it in the next world. The mouth was symbolically opened that it might speak, and the eyes that they might see, a bull was slaughtered that the dead might have food at hand, rites were performed to enable it to make use of garments, unguents and many other things, in fact to make it in all ways like a living human body.



Finally the coffin containing the mummy was placed in a large oblong sarcophagus and lowered into the grave, the shaft was closed and when all was over a funeral feast was held in the antechamber of the tomb. In the coffin was usually placed the wooden or stone headrest which the deceased had used in life as a pillow, for it was thought that he would likewise need this in his eternal sleep. Food and drink and other offerings were then placed in the outer chamber of the tomb and the friends of the dead departed, having done all that was in their power to do.

Even after the deceased had been laid at rest the duties of the remaining kinsmen did not cease. Sacrifices must still be made to the dead and offerings left at the tomb. These services, however, it is believed were more often from fear on the part of the living that the ka of the dead, being in want, would visit them, than out of loyalty to the dead. Whatever the reason, it is known that the friends of the dead were for many years unceasing in their providing for the possible wants of the dead. The ka was worshipped with offerings and burning of incense on festival days. The most important of the ceremonies being the sacrifice of the sacrificial animal, an ox or a great antelope. The animal was cut up most scientifically, inspected by the priest and if declared pure, was offered. Gazelles and oxen were brought and sacrificed at the door of the tomb chapel. Vessels of beer or wine, great jars of fresh water, purified with natron, or perfumed, were brought to them that they might drink their fill at pleasure. Prayers were offered, chants sung, and the living in so far as they were able contributed to the supposed needs of the dead.

Many of the purer and better elements in the Egyptian religion which were shown in their care of the dead, as time went on, lost their significance. The necessity of leading a good life in order to plead innocent before Osiris in the after world was lost sight of, and the lower elements, such as the use of magical formulæ and amulets came to be made much of, so that as far as the religious significance of the cult of the dead was concerned, there was little of real value or of much influence on later nations. But from our standpoint, the ancient cult of the dead is of the greatest importance because of the zeal of the Egyptians in rendering both bodies and tombs permanent. They succeeded to a great extent in accomplishing what they desired. Their tombs, their mummies, their inscriptions are in many cases almost the same today as they were centuries ago. For this reason the cult of the dead by the Egyptians seems one, if not the most important feature of the ancient religion. It is only because of this peculiar custom of these people and their care and devotion in carrying it out, that we today can learn so much of the life and ways of ancient Egypt.

References: Wiederman, "Religion of Egypt;" Erman, "Life in Egypt;" Maspero, "Dawn of Civilization;" Renouf, "Religion of Egypt;" Tréle, "Egyptian Religion;" Budge, "Book of the Dead;" Budge,

"The Mummy;" Sayce, "Religion of Ancient Egypt and Babylonia;" Steindorff, "Religion of the Ancient Egyptians."

## COMMUNICATION

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK,  
Philadelphia, Pa.

Portsmouth, Va.  
June 21, 1920.

Gentlemen:

In your January, 1920, number, I read an article written by J. L. Stockton called, "Teaching Current Events." I was very much interested, and determined to try the method out in my history classes at Woodrow Wilson High School in this city. I have always attempted something along these lines; but had used *The Digest* with only partial success. The days that we read this magazine in class bored me terribly, and also the children. Therefore, when I read the good suggestions of Mr. Stockton, I was delighted. I taught six classes of history this past term, and in each we started a Current Events Club modeled on Plan 4. I like to try experiments, and although I followed the plan almost entirely, still we had a few departures. We had grand times on Fridays when the clubs met. I can honestly say that not only the students, but I enjoyed those meetings.

If you will pardon me I will give you some suggestions that we worked out for the betterment of this idea. The students are greatly interested, and if I return next year, I want to try out the idea I have evolved this term. A good many of them have been given by the students, and some came to me. Probably they will not amount to a row of pins, while some may possibly work. Anyway, good or bad, I want to give them a tryout.

1. Choose a new presiding officer every month, instead of one for the entire term.
2. Have criticism committee judge at each meeting which topic was most vital and best discussed.
3. At last meeting in month have a debate on best and most vital topic of the month. (This would correspond to your committee of the whole.)
4. Have at least two auditorium debates, choosing best debaters from all clubs.
5. Have one or two social meetings after school. (I tried this in a slight degree this term. Got a "Y" worker who had been to France come and give her personal experience in the canteens. The kids had eats, and enjoyed it greatly.)
6. Take all the magazines and papers that you can get the money to buy. I intend to ask each child to bring a certain amount of money, and then let them order several copies of the best magazines on the market to be used by them in the school library during their study periods. I also want to take *The Washington Post*, and a *New York* daily.

I like this work immensely and the only reason I would want to return next year would be to complete this experiment. I feel that I have just half finished the job in our high school. As one boy expressed it: "Whoever thought out this idea was nobody's fool," and I heartily endorse his sentiments. Yours very truly, MARY E. PHILLIPS.

Teacher of Modern History, Woodrow Wilson High School.

# Making Better Citizens

BY JOHN C. ALMACK, UNIVERSITY OF OREGON, EUGENE, OREGON

## PURPOSE

An effort has been made in this paper to set forth as concisely as possible some of the essential points on the relation and use of the social sciences in training pupils of the upper grades for effective citizenship. The specific questions which it undertakes to answer are: What are the objectives in a course in citizenship? (2) What experiences are desirable in order to attain the objectives? Put in another way, the topics presented are: the aims in civics instruction, the content of the course, the organization, and the method.

## AIMS OF CIVICS INSTRUCTION

The great purpose of a course in civics is to render "boys and girls honest, efficient, and loyal citizens." To attain the purpose the pupils need to acquire useful civic knowledge, habits, and ideals. More concretely, the aims of civic instruction are: (1) to enable students to co-operate with each other, (2) to learn methods of investigation in civics, (3) to understand governmental organization and operation, (4) to participate in industry, and in the activities of voluntary associations, (5) to aid in the improvement of political and social conditions, (6) select and judge public service, (7) to act in public capacity, and (8) to defend the nation from enemies.

## CRITERIA FOR JUDGING CONTENT

These aims largely determine content and method. In respect to the former, the following criteria deserve consideration: (1) concrete situations should be involved—both of the school and of the larger society of which the pupils are members, (2) the material should be suited to their interests and abilities, (3) it should expand constantly: be progressive, (4) should meet social needs, and (5) should be usable under existing school conditions. In addition, the subject matter should be forward-looking and anticipatory: not mere conjecture, but of a nature approved by progressive political science; a preparation for the next step in human progress through orderly methods.

## THE GOOD CITIZEN

The pupil's motive has been indicated: he wishes to become a good citizen. The question then arises, "What is a good citizen?" This furnishes an interesting project. It may be developed by (1) naming good local citizens with reasons for their selection, (2) expanding until the idea of leadership has been brought out in several vocations, as education, medicine, ministry, public service, farming, business, etc., (3) select and analyze the qualities of state and national leaders, (4) refer to history and biography for great men and women, and (5) complete the study by listing the virtues common to "good citizens." A standard or model of conduct is thus developed, and the ethic basis of citizenship made evident without elaboration, or the drawing of morals.

## GOOD CITIZENSHIP IN PRACTICE

The discovery of the desirable traits in character is easier than to make them a part of life. Stories and poems with emotional appeals certainly accomplish much; illustrations of the relations between the civic virtues and success of the individual do more. Here, if anywhere, a variety of devices should be called upon. One that has succeeded with the younger pupils consists of self-rating or rating by the teacher on the qualities which have been found to be inseparable from good citizenship: fair play, courtesy, industry, honesty, respect for law, service, punctuality, thrift, co-operation, and self-reliance. The idea is to develop a spirit of self-analysis, and a standard by which to measure improvement. Civic virtues should become a matter of living instead of a subject of teaching. The most promising scheme of all consists of careful guidance and direction in the various school and life activities, and culminates in beginnings of self-government.

## HOW PEOPLE WORK TOGETHER

Individual virtues alone are not sufficient. Most of the concerns of life require that people work together willingly and intelligently. The second project may well be, "How do people work together?" Here again, the inductive method should be followed. Let the pupils give examples of co-operative endeavor in business, education, politics, religion, etc. Organization schemes should be studied, looking forward to the formation of an organization among the pupils, a purpose of which they should be cognizant. This society may be an athletic association, literary society, local history club, or Junior Civic League. No association is better adapted to the purpose than the last.

## PRACTICE MAKES PERFECT

Following the organization of the civic group, the next step is to give the members opportunities to work together. "People organize in order to do things;" the pupils should at once attack problems that are real and vital to them. The situations which they will face will provide sufficient practice to enable them to learn parliamentary methods: to formulate programs, render reports, serve on committees, follow an order of business, discuss issues, and amend regulations and procedure.

## HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS

There are two important related problems that should be developed at this juncture. They are the geographical and historical. Here is the opportunity to form the concepts of the relations of people, place and affairs. Human society is not comprehensible without a careful working out of the connections between what has been and what is. What society is depends much upon the physical inheritance of its members; and no less upon the social inheritance and the physical environment. Let us suppose that our problem is to explain the affairs of the community.

What light is thrown upon the problem by a consideration of (1) the physical environment: extent, character of land, water forms, climate, natural advantages; (2) the history: people, early life, development of institutions. By this method may be taught a sympathetic understanding of the manifold interests of a modern community: its industries, educational system, government, customs, etc. The gathering of adequate data, its verification, organization, and interpretation supply excellent training in scientific method, and is the direct road to scholarship.

The beginning point is therefore the affairs of the community, matters of which the pupils already have some knowledge. The point is to select those of most worth, and to emphasize them according to their relative importance and difficulty.

#### THE SCIENTIFIC SELECTION OF SUBJECT MATTER

Some attempt has already been made to select the content of civic courses in a scientific manner. Two studies reviewed by Horn in *The Elementary School Journal* of June, 1919, are notable. The topics with their relative values were arrived at in one case by listing the civic problems mentioned and discussed in the daily papers; and in the second case by a study of the problems contained in party platforms. The first covered a brief period only, and it is impossible to tell whether the topics selected are ephemeral or more or less permanent in their values. The objection does not apply to the second method, as a long period was studied. Unquestionably the study of newspapers and magazines at selected intervals, covering several years, would indicate with considerable exactness those civic topics that are most important, and their relative importance.

#### PROBLEMS OF THE PEOPLE

Other sources of information suggest themselves. They are the subjects discussed by commercial clubs, civic leagues, public welfare societies, women's societies, and other organizations. The writer has recently completed an analysis of the subjects on which the people of the state of Oregon have voted through the initiative and the referendum, and is extending the study to other states where direct legislation is authorized. These are real problems of the people. Eighteen years are embraced in the survey, during which 198 measures have been decided. The results are given below, and for purposes of comparison a partial statement of the other studies heretofore referred to:

Topics	Initiative and Refer- endum %	State Party Platforms %	News- papers %
Taxation .....	17.25	0	24.2
Counties .....	11.75	0	0.0
Education .....	7.75	4.8	0.0
Roads .....	6.75	0.0	0.0
Legislation .....	6.5	4.0	11.2
State Officers .....	5.0	25.0	0.0
Labor .....	4.0	10.2	1.9
Liquor and Prohibition...	4.0	0.0	8.2

Finance .....	3.5	9.6	3.8
Public Utilities .....	3.5	10.4	9.9
Elections .....	3.5	0.0	0.0
Suffrage .....	3.5	0.0	13.6
Cities .....	3.5	1.0	0.0
State Wards .....	3.0	0.0	0.0
Natural Resources.....	3.0	7.3	0.9
Constitution .....	2.5	3.0	0.0
Printing and Publications.	2.0	0.0	0.0
Judiciary .....	2.0	2.7	0.0
Public Institutions .....	1.5	1.2	0.0
Public Health and Welfare	1.5	6.6	5.0
Banks .....	1.0	0.66	0.0
Foreign Relations .....	0.0	0.0	8.1
Public Works .....	0.0	5.3	0.0
Political Parties .....	0.0	2.4	0.0
Miscellaneous .....	3.0	1.0	13.1

#### THE NEED OF EXPERTS

At the best, no final judgment regarding content can be reached from quantitative studies. In the initiative and referendum elections about one-fourth of all the measures were of vital importance; the others dealt with minor matters. Furthermore, if party platforms, newspapers, and legislation furnish reliable guides to what topics should be studied, should we not go to them for information about the topics? A qualified affirmative is only possible in answer to the question. To balance properly conclusions reached through a study of only part of the important affairs of men, we still need the opinion of experts whose judgments constitute scientific facts as certainly as does newspaper opinion. These judgments of experts may be found in their published writings, in courses of study, and may be gained through correspondence.

#### HISTORICAL INTERESTS

Few studies have been made of the relative interests of pupils in social science materials. In a study of the historical interests of 385 junior high school pupils, the following subjects were given, the most popular first: wars, exploration and settlement, Indians, pioneers, inventions, politics, transportation, industries, immigration, slavery, government, finance, and labor. There seem to be two suggestions towards enlivening the study of civics: (1) study it in connection with its historical and geographic background, and (2) set exercises of the laboratory type so that the pupils may be actively concerned with them. The combination of the two presents no insurmountable obstacles.

#### ORGANIZATION

Organization in civics is dependent upon one's attitude toward other subjects of the social science group. A common practice is to alternate civics and history; in some instances the social sciences are carried parallel with each other. In rare cases an effort has been made to unify the social sciences. The subject is not then regarded as composed of separate and independent elements, but as an orderly whole, whose purpose is to put meaning into life, interpret human experiences, and give thoughtful guidance to human



affairs. Something is lost in mastery of facts; something is gained in understanding, by the last method.

It is a live question whether it is preferable to follow a problem through its community, state, national and international aspects, or to draw lines of separation between the community and the larger units. Expediency and practice dictate the latter course; the former is doubtless more in accord with the principles of logic and good pedagogy. In any event, the system should provide for a foundation of specific experiences, and for definite progress: that is, from simple and elementary experiences to the more complex.

#### METHOD

As has been stated, method should be determined by principles similar to those used in selecting content. First of all it should be social or natural, not formal and artificial. Participation is a prime requisite, purpose is as necessary, and the spirit of open-mindedness, investigation, and co-operation should prevail. Briefly stated, the procedure seems to be as follows: select material, map out the large units of instruction, organize for socialized and co-operative effort, assign definite problems or projects, indicate sources of information and illustration, formulate tentative plans of attack, and proceed to the solution of the question. The method is inductive, and textbooks should, therefore, be of the nature of the laboratory manuals used in the physical sciences.

#### EXTRA-CLASS ACTIVITIES

The courses ordinarily planned in civics achieve their function chiefly through giving knowledge and ideals, though it is true that any successful class exercise also gives desirable civic habits. However, these may be best promoted through extra-class activities in literary societies, local history clubs, athletic associations, and similar organizations. If these do not contribute a considerable share towards training for citizenship they have practically no reason for existence. The extent to which they function towards the attainment of the main purpose of education will serve to measure their worth. The principal criticism of such activities in the past and in the present is that they have not been created for nor directed towards the achievement of a social end.

#### SELF-GOVERNMENT

Self-government is an essential part of a civics course. It is the best introduction to organized self-government. It will fail if based upon either of the following false assumptions: (1) that pupils are competent to govern themselves without direction and assistance, and (2) that constitutions, rules, and governmental machinery are the essentials of success in a school democracy. Teachers should never forget that the pupils are amateurs in self-government. Rules are necessary, and should be the creation of a public-spirited school society, not arbitrarily imposed by some law-giver without discussion and explanation. The tyranny of teachers is the chief cause of breaches of discipline. The pupils should help to make laws, and should assist in their execution. The teacher's

responsibility in a school republic is great; however we may speculate upon methods, there must be respect for, and a prompt, willing and intelligent obedience to the constituted authority.

#### CURRENT CIVICS

Just as newspapers and magazines furnish an index to the content of civics courses, so they may be used as sources of material for class study; may supply the problems and the data for their solution. After all, the present matters mightily to all the people. History is not unrelated here: we can judge the present only by the past. Yet not all history is required; there is nothing so deceptive as the fallacy of origins. There is need of more careful method in the study of current problems; much of the teaching from periodicals is incidental, unorganized and unproductive. It is only when the larger and more permanent interests of citizens are recognized, and the line of inquiry followed continuously, with a large amount of data bearing upon the solution of the problem, that such reference is profitable.

It is a big problem we have before us. The life of our country is dependent upon the virtue and ability of her citizens. It is the duty of the school to give more and more thought to the training of the young that they may better "face life as it is and as it changes." We need men and women who know their rights, and will not fail to maintain one and perform the other.

James Westdall Thompson is not the first historian to find grist for his mill in Shakespeare, but in his "Shakespeare and Puritanism" (*North American Review* for August) he adds new ideas to the subject for students of Shakespeare as well as for historians. According to Professor Thompson, Shakespeare was not a Puritan, yet dared not attack it directly for fear of offending his sovereign. "Shakespeare feared the influence of Puritanism on the theatres. . . . Triumphant puritanism wreaked its vengeance on Shakespeare."

"Shantung Once More" by Nathaniel Peffer appears in *The Unpartizan Review* for July. In it, the author, who is inclined to be pessimistic over the future of China says:

"In the last three years bigger things than Shantung have been sold to Japan by the Chinese themselves. . . . For more than two years the Chinese government has been absolutely controlled by Japan and there is no prospect that it will be otherwise controlled so long as the militarists are the government of China. . . . Yet China may still save itself—China's enslavement or salvation rests on broader grounds than one province and will be divided by more fundamental considerations than Shantung. Japan's grip on China is not territorial or even political: it is economic, obtained by means of loans made three corrupt Chinese officials at Peking, loans that are really mortgages on China's national resources that can never be paid off."

All three articles in *The National Geographic Magazine* for August are of unusual excellence, not only for subject matter but for illustrations: "Antioch the Glorious" by William H. Hall; "The Origin of American State Names" by Frederick W. Lawrence and "The Channel Islands" by Edith Carey.



# A Topical Method in United States History as a Social Study

BY F. W. CARRIER, WINCHESTER, MASS.

For the past few years, especially since the publication of Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, by the Bureau of Education and because of the work of the Committee of History and Education for Citizenship, there has been much said and written on the topical method of teaching history. The purpose of this paper is to show how this method has been applied in the twelfth year classes in the Somerville (Mass.) High School. The writer has merely attempted to state the principles according to which the topics were selected, to show a possible function of United States history as a preparation in citizenship and some of the advantages of the topical method. To illustrate how an attempt has been made to apply this method to classroom work, there is appended a part of a topic.

## PRINCIPLES FOR THE SELECTION OF A TOPIC

The selection of a topic for study should be made "with reference to the pupil's interest and growth"<sup>1</sup> and its application to his own problems. This is simply modern pedagogy.

*Interests.* Certainly if United States history in the eleventh year has been preceded by community civics, American history, and European history as recommended in Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, and the reports of the American Historical Association, the problem of the teacher is the selection of interests rather than the creation of them. On the other hand, United States history is often the first of the social sciences studied. Even then the teacher usually finds a majority of a class interested in current events or problems. For instance, this past year there were few pupils who were not interested in the League of Nations. This interest, developed by an informal discussion, was found to be sufficient to begin a study of our international relations. A topic, after it has been studied a few days, should beget its own interest. Moreover, it is an aim of the social studies to create a life-long interest in the fundamentals of American life.

*Growth.* It is not enough merely to meet the interests of the pupils. The instructor must furnish food for their growth. This simply means that the teacher, to be successful, must begin with the experience and interests of the class, no matter how vague and disorganized they may be. Then, drawing upon the past and present in our national life, he enriches the experience and deepens the interests of the pupils. At the same time, the pupils, guided by the teacher, group their enriched and deepening interests around some central idea or principle of our national life. This idea or principle is the topic studied.

*Application.* But interest and growth are not the only things to consider in selecting a topic. The class should have practice in applying the central theme of

the topic studied to his own thinking, what he gets from speakers, reads in the papers and magazines, and hears in conversation.

From another viewpoint, a topic should be selected "with reference to its social significance."<sup>2</sup> As the years go by, the pupils busily engaged in the affairs of life forget the details, the facts, the historic settings, the dates, and many of the personages studied in their history course. Why study history then, if to master it is to forget it? Interests, the needs for growth, and problems change as the days go by. Life is a sequence of vicissitudes. This leads us to the fundamental principle by which a topic should be studied. A topic should illustrate and embody a principle, an idea, a policy, a condition, a movement, or an institution which is deep enough and broad enough to enter perennially into the life of every real American. In other words, a topic should center about a principle or policy which has a bearing on many concrete problems of this generation as well as those of the past and future.

## THE FUNCTION OF UNITED STATES HISTORY

From this standpoint, the function of United States history is to furnish material to show how the American people have obtained their present ideas and policies, how they have applied them to problems as they arose and have modified them to meet changed conditions, thereby helping the pupil to understand more or less clearly the present fundamentals of our national life and giving him some practice in applying them to past situations and current problems. A laboratory for science with its equipment and apparatus is primarily used to help the student to discover, verify, or practice applying some principle of science. The agriculturist uses these principles to solve problems as they arise in his occupation with few thoughts of the college laboratory. Likewise, history libraries, textbooks, recitations, and reports, and also the newspapers are the equipment of an historical laboratory to be used as the means by which the pupil discovers, verifies, and gets practice in applying the fundamentals of good citizenship. For instance, suppose the topic is the Monroe Doctrine. The Holy Alliance, the interpretations made by Monroe, Cleveland, Roosevelt, Taft, Wilson, and other statesmen of past situations show the growth of the idea of the Monroe Doctrine, and how it has been applied to various conditions past and present. The real aim here is not to get the pupil to study and remember history, but to find out what the Monroe Doctrine is and to give him practice in applying it. History thus becomes not mere knowledge of the past, but the means by which the pupil obtains an appreciation of the present, a more or less clear conception of a few American prin-

<sup>1</sup>Bulletin, 1916, No. 28.

<sup>2</sup>Bulletin, 1916, No. 28.

ciples, and practice in applying them to actual situations. This may not be history as the historian conceives it. Our object is to train adolescence for American citizenship, not to make historians. If the teacher can thus leave in the lives of his pupils as a residuum of a course in United States history an appreciation and usable understanding of half a dozen fundamentals of American life, he has done about all that can be reasonably expected of him.

#### THE FUNCTION OF CURRENT EVENTS

Current events as sometimes taught is merely a jumble of unrelated facts or guesses without background and uncorrelated in the mind of the pupils with the past or the present, and is therefore superficial and not of much value in the educative process for citizenship. But, on the other hand, current events may be so taught as to create worthwhile interests and problems in the minds of the class. These, in turn, may be used as the starting point for beginning a study of an essential in Americanism. Moreover, contemporary problems and situations present the ideal material for practice in applying fundamentals of our national life. Practice in applying cannot be overdone. The aim is to establish this as a habit. What better can social studies do for the citizenry of our country than to help the pupils form the habit of considering current problems in the light of the basal conceptions of Americanism?

All that has been stated so far in this paper might lead one to think that the method used would make the pupil a non-progressive—one who would judge the present entirely by the past. This does not follow. Statesmen at present and in the past have not agreed in applying American principles to concrete problems. This is also true of pupils. Every thinking class has its conservatives, progressives and radicals, and this is as it should be if the class is to represent real life. The aim here is not to make all in the class think just alike, but to make each one view in his own way the problems of his day from the viewpoint of basal Americanism. Thus full scope is given to individualism.

#### THE AIMS OF UNITED STATES HISTORY

The aim of each topic should be definitely to give the pupil as clear a conception as possible of a fundamental of American life and to give him practice in applying it to concrete problems at hand, thus training him in the "knack" of applying it to future problems as they may arise during his life. This leads the writer to believe that a course in United States history composed of several topics can be made one of the great means for developing "a vivid conception of American nationality, a strong and intelligent patriotism and a keen sense of the responsibility of every citizen for national efficiency. It is only on the basis of national solidarity, national efficiency (economic, social, political), and national patriotism that this or any other nation can expect to perform its proper function in the family of nations."<sup>3</sup>

#### WHY TEACH UNITED STATES HISTORY BY TOPICS?

1. In this way United States history can be

<sup>3</sup>Bulletin, 1916, No. 28.

adapted to the present interest and to the needs for the growth of the pupil.

2. It makes history adaptable for preparing the pupil to solve the problems of his own day and generation by applying to them the fundamentals of American life. In other words, it leaves untouched those ideas or policies that are obsolescent and therefore useless for the understanding of American ideas.

3. The topical method makes history vital and practical.

4. It makes it possible to organize history by a more significant principle than mere chronology although chronology is usually followed in a given topic.

5. It furnishes a background and a beginning for the Problems of Democracy which follows in the twelfth year. It is the opinion of the writer that in the eleventh year emphasis should be placed upon history whereas in the twelfth year Problems of Democracy, the social, political and economic, should be stressed.

#### AN ATTEMPTED CLASSROOM APPLICATION OF THE FOREGOING IDEAS

All that follows in this paper is merely an attempt to apply these ideas to actual classroom work. The topic selected was "Our International Relations." It was chosen because it was of current interest to the classes and to the nation, is basal in our national life, and is an ever-present problem.

*Approach.*<sup>4</sup> The classes had an informal recitation on the League of Nations. In this discussion our policy of isolation and neutrality, the open-door policy, the Monroe Doctrine, our relations with England, France and Latin-America were mentioned—all of which were studied afterwards. Thus interest was aroused and the present value of the topic to be studied was driven home to the class.

*The study of United States history as a means of understanding the topic, "International Relations."* To illustrate the work the class actually did to understand this topic, a copy of a pupil's notebook on the sub-topic, "Monroe Doctrine," follows. The reader will notice that the lessons assigned are put in the form of questions, thus giving an opportunity for class discussion and individual opinion. The bibliography was determined by books accessible to the pupils.

*Application of "The Monroe Doctrine" to concrete problems.* In the recitations, an effort was made to give the class practice in applying the Monroe Doctrine, not only to the history lessons studied, but to actual concrete problems as found in the press.

#### THE MONROE DOCTRINE

East and West Florida.

Who were our neighbors in 1815?

Why did we occupy West and East Florida?

Why did Jackson conquer East Florida?

What was the ultimatum of Adams, and why did Spain not stand out against it?

Why and on what terms did we purchase Florida?

Why did we want Florida?

<sup>4</sup>Bulletin, 1916, No. 28.

References: Muzzey, par. 320-329; Fite, pages 247-249; Montgomery, par. 317-318, 330; Channing, par. 256-258.

### I. The Monroe Doctrine (1823).

What was the Holy Alliance?

What were its aims?

What are the three or four important ideas in Monroe's message?

Did the Monroe Doctrine meet our foreign situation (1823)? Why?

Compare Washington's proclamation of neutrality with the Monroe Doctrine in origin, aim, etc.

What was the treaty with Russia?

References: Coolidge, *The United States as a World Power*, pp. 95-103; Fish, *American Diplomacy*, pp. 203-216; Foster, *A Century of American Diplomacy*, pp. 438-451; Bigelow, *American Policy*, pp. 41-58; Montgomery, *Student's American History*, pp. 331-332, 261; Fite, *History of the United States*, pp. 249-250; MacDonald, *Select Documents of U. S. History*, No. 43; Channing, *Student's History of United States*, pp. 259, 200.

"Our first and fundamental maxim should be never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe; our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle with cis-atlantic affairs."—Jefferson.

Monroe's annual Message (1823) announced that

- (1) the United States would not interfere in Europe,
- (2) nor with any recognized European colonies in America; but that
- (3) no new European colonies should be planted in America, and
- (4) the United States would not "view with indifference" an attempt by any nation of Europe to reduce "an independent nation of North or South America to the condition of a Colony."

### II. How has the Monroe Doctrine been applied?

#### A. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty (1850).

Why did we need a canal or railroad across the Isthmus of Panama?

What were the terms of the treaty we made with Colombia (1846)?

Why did we make a treaty with England?

What were the terms of the treaty?

Were these terms consistent with the Monroe Doctrine?

References: Muzzey, *American History*, par. 546-547; Fite, *History of the United States*, pp. 309-312; MacDonald, *Select Documents of United States History*, No. 77; Moore, *Principles of American Diplomacy*, pp. 122-125; Fish, *American Diplomacy*, pp. 292-295; Coolidge, *The United States as a World Power*, pp. 271-273; Foster, *A Century of American Diplomacy*, p. 326.

#### B. The French in Mexico.

Why did they take possession of Mexico?

Did the United States enforce the Monroe Doctrine? Why? How?

References: Muzzey, *American History*, pp. 703; Fite, *History of the United States*, pp. 375, 422; Montgomery, *A Student's American History*, par.

520; Channing, *A Student's History of United States*, par. 384; Foster, *A Century of American Diplomacy*, pp. 402-403, 460.

#### C. President Grant's interpretation.

Spain and San Domingo (1870).

How was the Monroe Doctrine involved?

Was Grant supported by the Senate?

Reference: Coolidge, *The United States as a World Power*, pp. 112.

"No European power can acquire by any means—war, colonization, or annexation—even when the annexed people demand it, any portion of American territory."—President Grant.

#### D. President Cleveland's interpretation (1895).

The Venezuela boundary dispute.

What was the dispute about?

How did the Monroe Doctrine enter into the case?

What was President Cleveland's attitude toward the Monroe Doctrine, the English attitude?

How was the dispute settled?

References: Foster, *A Century of American Diplomacy*, pp. 467-474; Fite, *History of United States*, pp. 469-470; Fish, *American Diplomacy*, pp. 391-395; Coolidge, *The United States as a World Power*, pp. 102-105; Dewey, *National Problems*, pp. 304-313; Muzzey, *American History*, pp. 798-799; Montgomery, *Student's American History*, par. 565; Moore, *Principles of American Diplomacy*, pp. 246-251; Hart, *History Told by Contemporaries*, Vol. IV, No. 179.

"Today the United States is practically sovereign on this continent and its fiat is law upon the subjects to which it confines its interpositions. . . . There is, then, a doctrine of American public law, well founded in principle and abundantly sanctioned by precedent which entitles the United States to treat as an injury to itself the forcible assumption by any European power of political control over an American state."—Olney.

#### E. President Roosevelt's interpretation (1901).

##### 1. Venezuela's troubles with Germany, Great Britain and Italy.

What did these nations do and why?

What was the Drago Doctrine?

What position did Roosevelt take?

How was the matter settled?

Why did this trouble involve the Monroe Doctrine?

What attitude did Germany show toward the Monroe Doctrine?

References: Fite, *History of United States*, pp. 493-495; Moore, *Principles of American Diplomacy*, pp. 251 sqq.; Beard, *American Government and Politics*, pp. 336; Latane, *America as a World Power*, pp. 271-279.

"The Monroe Doctrine is a declaration that there must be no territorial aggrandizement by any non-American power at the expense of any American power on American soil. It is in no wise intended as



hostile to any nation in the Old World. . . . This doctrine has nothing to do with the commercial relations of any American power, save that it in truth allows each of them to form such as it desires. . . . We do not guarantee any state against punishment if it misconducts itself, provided that punishment does not take the form of the acquisition of territory by any non-American power."—Roosevelt, Moore 251.

## 2. His application of the Monroe Doctrine to Santo Domingo.

Why and how was the Monroe Doctrine applied to Santo Domingo? (1904.)

Is this a new interpretation?

What is the Hague rule for the forcible collection of debts? (Fite, pp. 485.)

References: Fish, *American Diplomacy*, pp. 447-449; Latane, *America as a World Power*, pp. 279-282; Fite, *History of the United States*, p. 495; Muzzey, *American History*, par. 847; Moore, *Principles of American Diplomacy*, pp. 261-265.

"Any country whose people conduct themselves well can count upon our hearty friendliness. If a nation shows that it knows how to act with decency in industrial and political matters; if it keeps order and pays its obligations—then it need fear no interference from the United States. Brutal wrong-doing, or impotence which results in the general loosening of the ties of civilized society may finally require intervention by some civilized nation and in the Western Hemisphere the United States cannot ignore its duty." Roosevelt. (Quoted by Moore, *Principles of American Diplomacy*, page 261.)

## F. President Taft's interpretation.

Why and how was the Monroe Doctrine applied to the Magdalena Bay episode (1911), and to the S. Pearson and Son case? (1913.)

What change do these show in the Monroe Doctrine?

What do these changes mean?

What is the attitude of Latin-America toward this new Monroe Doctrine?

References: Ogg, *National Problems* (The Am. Nat.), pp. 278-284; American Year Book, 1916, p. 88; Taft, *The United States and Peace*, pp. 11-13.

"Resolved—That when any harbor or other place in the American Continents is so situated that the occupation thereof for naval or military purposes might threaten the communication or the safety of the United States, the government of the United States could not see, without grave concern, the possession of such harbor or other place by any corporation or association which has such a relation to another government, not American, as to give that government practical power of control for naval or military purposes."—Lodge-Ogg, p. 281.

## G. President Wilson's interpretation.

What was the demand of France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy upon Hayti?

What were the conditions in Hayti?

Why was the Monroe Doctrine applied?

How was the Monroe Doctrine applied?

References: Ogg, *National Progress*, pp. 282-283; American Year Book, 1916, p. 88; Moore, *Principles of American Democracy*, pp. 402-404.

"The United States will never again seek one additional foot of territory by conquest."—Wilson, 1913, quoted by Ogg, p. 282.

The League of Nations.

"Nothing in this covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international engagements such as treaties of arbitration or regional understanding like the Monroe Doctrine for the maintenance of peace." Article 21 of the League of Nations.

## SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSION

Does the Monroe Doctrine serve the ends of irresponsible and dishonest American governments? Ogg, 283.

Is the Monroe Doctrine obsolete and therefore should it be abandoned?

References: Root, *Addresses on International Subjects*, pp. 107-109; Fish, *American Diplomacy*, p. 477.

Does the fact that the United States allied itself with European nations to carry on the World War contradict the Monroe Doctrine?

Should the Monroe Doctrine be made in conjunction with the "A B C powers?" Ogg, p. 279 sqq.

Does our possession of the Philippine Islands invalidate the Monroe Doctrine?

Does the Monroe Doctrine apply to Asiatics?

Is the Monroe Doctrine international law? Root, pp. 109-110.

Is the Monroe Doctrine founded upon sentiment or sympathy? Root, pp. 112.

Does the Monroe Doctrine imply any right on the part of the United States to control the independent sovereignty of any American state? Root, pp. 113-117.

What is the basis of the Monroe Doctrine?

1. Geographic separation (is this true?).

2. Political systems (do they really differ?).

3. Safety.

Has Europe recognized the Monroe Doctrine because it wanted to or because it had to? Usher: *The Challenge of the Future*, Chap. XI and XII.

Dr. Harry Elmer Barnes says: "The scientists should recognize that until the history of science is espoused by a large number of historians it can not have its deserved recognition in the academic world, and they should cherish, encourage and enlighten the few historians who evince an interest in science with as great care and enthusiasm as a biologist would nurse along the rarest and most interesting spore or imitation which might appear in the evolution of organic life. The growth of mutual respect and the stimulation of co-operation between historians and scientists cannot but be productive of the greatest gain to both," in his article "The Historian and the History of Science" (*Scientific Monthly* for August.)

For lighter reading, those interested in the Orient will delight in Raymond M. Weaver's "Japan—Real and Imaginary" (*Bookman* for August) even though it is not written primarily for the Historian.

## Community Civics in a Town or Small City

BY JENNIE L. PINGREY, FALCONER, N. Y.

This outline was intended for and has been used in the schools of Falconer, hence the particular problems of Falconer are considered, but they do not differ essentially from the problems of any town or small city. It is believed that comparisons with other communities may be made more easily from a concrete example than from an abstract theory.

The figures in brackets after the principal topics in the outline give the percentage of the full year's time devoted to each topic.

### GENERAL SUGGESTIONS FOR CIVICS

#### Aims of the course:

1. To make intelligent citizens.
2. To train keen observers.
3. To correlate high school and grades—the junior high school idea.

#### Nature of the course:

1. *Informal*—Discussion should be encouraged.
2. *Lively*—All the enthusiasm and patriotism of the child should be used; make it a class to which the pupils look forward eagerly.
3. *Local*—Emphasis should be placed upon local conditions which the child may observe. Local study should not lead to any ungrounded loyalty or the "I-am-better-than-thou" community spirit, but to an understanding of other communities through an examination of the near-at-hand.
4. *Not "preachy"*—Let the pupil draw his own morals.

#### Materials used:

1. No textbook, although it would be well if we could have a textbook in the eighth grade later. Several civics books should be on the teacher's desk, available for the pupils for special work.
2. Written work, such as compositions on "The Disposal of Garbage in Falconer," etc., may be called for from time to time.
3. Illustrations should be freely used. They may be found by the pupil and by the teacher in magazines, newspapers, postcards, snapshots, etc.
4. Several investigating trips to factories, etc., under the teacher's supervision are desirable.

#### Special devices:

1. Civics clubs, with elected officers and using simple parliamentary procedure. Debates on civic problems may be a frequent part of the program. The club may be combined with the Health Club.
2. Scrapbooks. One large one, preferably a loose-leaf notebook, kept at school, to contain the illustrations mentioned above.
3. Posters made by the pupils, as "Clean Falconer."
4. Mottoes for good citizens on the board.
5. An ideal community may be planned by the seventh grade throughout the year.

#### Time spent:

1. Seventh grade:  
Two periods per week, although one of the periods may be united with composition work, hygiene or history.
2. Eighth grade:  
Two full periods per week. Additional time should be gained by correlation, if possible.

### OUTLINE

1. Robinson Crusoe (to present the "community" idea). [5]  
Have pupils tell the story. Then discuss the subject by such questions as:

"Would you like to live alone on a desert island?"  
"Why did it take Robinson Crusoe so long to make a plank?"

2. Home community (present "a" and "b" either separately or jointly). [10]

#### a. Duties to be done:

"Why does someone have to get the meals?"  
"Why should the path be swept?"  
"Why do you want a house to live in?" etc.

- b. "Who is responsible for the doing of the work?"  
"Why should you help?"

(Compare the child's share of the work with parents'.)

3. School community. [15]

#### a. Necessity of rules where many are concerned.

1. "Suppose everyone did just as he pleased."

Chinese school—recitations and studying aloud.

#### b. Expense of school.

1. "Who pays for the books when they are worn out?"

"Who pays to have the walls decorated?"

#### c. Opportunity of school.

1. Let the pupils volunteer reasons why going to school is advantageous, then suggest additions, such as increased capacity for amusement gained through knowledge of books. A composition on this subject might be interesting, if emphasis is placed on child's own ideas rather than those his parents may have preached.

4. Falconer community. [50]

#### a. "Who is included in this community?" (village.) "Define limits, if possible, and give population."

#### b. "How did the community happen to be here?"

1. Review of local history studied in fifth grade. When founded, by whom, first buildings.
2. Reasons for growth. Transportation, water power, natural products.

#### c. Survey of Falconer as it is, with a view to bettering it not only now, but also later by the use of the ballot.

1. Health, correlate especially with hygiene.

- a. Quarantine, colds.
- b. Disposal of garbage.
- c. Purity of water supply.
- d. Cleaning of streets.

(These topics are not necessarily to be studied in order given, but in the order in which they are suggested by the class.)

#### 2. Protection of life and property—"safety first."

- a. Police patrol.
- b. Lighting of streets.
- c. Fire company.

#### 3. Beauty of village.

- a. General plan of village.  
(a map might be made)
- b. Width and paving of streets.
- c. Parks.
- d. Back yards.
- e. Improvement of Chadakoin banks and Moon Brook.
- f. Smokestacks and factory disfigurements.
- g. Unpleasant posters.

#### 4. Greater opportunities for amusement in village community.

- a. Library.
- b. School parties.
- c. School street partly reserved.
- d. Park.

#### 5. Village officers and very general survey of our village government.

5. State. [10]

(Bring out only points touching daily life, no constitutions or laws to be studied.)

- a. Care of defective, dependent and delinquent classes.
- b. Supervision of education.

## 6. Nation. [10]

(Same remarks as state.)

- a. Declaration of war and making of peace.
- b. Postoffice.
- c. Money.
- d. Responsibility of each in matter of government—they are the government.

## CIVICS OUTLINE, EIGHTH GRADE

## 1. Review. [40]

This may profitably be taken up in the form of discussion or debate in a "Civics Club" or "Good Citizenship Club."

## A. Home community.

1. Privileges and duties.

## B. School community.

1. Compare with "A."

## C. Village community—Falconer.

1. Who is included in this community? Define the limits, if possible, and give the population.
2. Origin of Falconer and reasons for its growth.
3. Civic improvement—what has been done and what should be done.

## a. Health.

- (1) Quarantine.
- (2) Disposal of garbage.
- (3) Water supply.
- (4) Cleaning of streets.

## b. Protection.

- (1) Police protection.
- (2) Fire protection.
- (3) Lighting of streets.

## c. Beauty of Falconer.

- (1) General plan.
- (2) Width and paving of streets.
- (3) Ask for suggestions from pupils.

## d. Opportunities for "higher life" and more fun in Falconer.

- (1) Schools.
- (2) Churches.
- (3) Library.
- (4) Park.

Some time may be devoted to a discussion of vocational opportunities in the community, with compositions on "A Good Career," "A Position I Should Like," etc.

## 2. New Work. [30]

4. Village government—this should mean *people* rather than *things* to the pupils. A short talk by one of the village officers would be fine; this might be given to several grades in assembly.

## a. Chief officers, how chosen, duties, present occupant of office.

- (1) President.
- (2) Trustees.
- (3) Treasurer.
- (4) Tax collector.
- (5) Clerk.
- (6) Health officer.

- D. County government. [2] A very general survey, bringing out what the pupil has ever heard about it and including:

- (1) Supervisors.
- (2) Sheriff.
- (3) County clerk.
- (4) County court.

## E. State government of New York. [15]

1. If it seems practical, work out (a) and (b) in actual practice. The pupils should study the qualifications for governor not as an end in itself, but for the purpose of enabling them to elect a governor from the class. It would be well to have one bill passed and signed, and one passed, vetoed, and passed over the veto.

(a) Governor.

(b) Legislature.

(c) Judicial system (discuss briefly—a mock trial might be presented if time permitted).

## F. National government. [13]

1. Bring out the points of contact with the pupils' life as closely as possible, avoid the remote. If possible, take up the services performed for the pupil in the order suggested by the pupils.

(a) Postoffice.

(b) Money.

(c) Army.

(d) Navy, etc.

## FALCONER FACTS

The village of Falconer was incorporated in 1888, under the general incorporation act of 1870 of the state of New York.

Very early in the spring, a caucus is held for the purpose of nominating candidates for village offices. All voters, both men and women, may participate. Then, in March, comes the regular village election when all qualified voters may go to the polls and vote by the use of the voting machine, for president, two trustees, collector, and treasurer. The clerk and the highway commissioner are appointed by the village board, or board of trustees, of which the president is the head. No village officer receives any salary. The term is one year, except for trustees, who serve two years. At present the trustees act as assessors for village taxes, but it has been proposed that the regular town assessments shall be used for the apportionment of village taxes, and the people of Falconer will vote on the proposition next spring.

In addition to the village officers chosen by the people of Falconer and appointed by the village board, there are committees appointed by the president to take charge of various kinds of work: Street committee, sewer committee, lighting committee, sidewalk committee, committee on village property, and finance committee.

The money for the village has been almost entirely raised by a tax on village property, but in 1919 this

## VILLAGE OFFICERS

Office	Term	How Chosen	Duties
Village Board			
President .....	1 yr. 2 yrs.	Elected	Head of village government. Presides over village board.
Trustees .....	4 two chosen each year	Elected	Legislature of the village. Assess property for village taxes.
Collector .....	1 yr.	Elected	Collects taxes.
Treasurer .....	1 yr.	Elected	Keeps village money.
Clerk .....	1 yr.	Appointed by board of trustees	Keeps village records.
Highway Commissioner	1 yr.	Appointed by board of trustees	General oversight of village streets.



amount was supplemented by \$2,400 from the tax on factories levied by the state and given to the locality in which the factories are situated. In 1920 this tax amounts to \$11,000.

One large item of expense has been the cost of paving Work and Main streets, but Falconer has not had to bear all the expense, nor has the "abutting property" scheme been used. The state paid part of the cost, the street railway company another part, and the village the remainder.

Each year the village contributes \$300 to the support of the library, and last year they gave an additional \$800 to clear up the indebtedness of the institution.

It is said that Falconer is the only village in New York state which is progressive enough to build side walks, plow snow from them, collect garbage and clean the streets without the use of an abutting property tax.

The cleaning of the streets and collection of garbage are done by a man hired by the village. The team which is used for this purpose is also used for fighting fire.

There are two volunteer fire companies in Falconer—the Falconer Hose Company and the new Hook and Ladder Company. The village provides all equipment except uniforms and may provide them. A fire truck may be purchased soon. The firemen are not paid, but are exempted from jury duty.

The village is about one square mile in area and is shaped like a kite. It is almost coextensive with the school district.

#### NEW PILGRIM HALF DOLLARS

The Directors of the Mint will issue this autumn the new Pilgrim memorial coins which are to commemorate the Tercentenary of the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, Mass. The coins will be known as the "Pilgrim half dollars," and will bear upon one side the head of a typical Pilgrim, to be designated "Governor Bradford," and, on the reverse side, a view of the ship Mayflower under full sail.

The National Shawmut Bank, of Boston, has been designated as the distributing agents for the coins and will furnish them to banks throughout the country. Persons desiring to procure these coins should make application to their local bank.

The price of the coins has been fixed at \$1.00 each. It is intended that any balance left over, after deducting the cost of dies, minting charges, etc., will be turned over to the Pilgrim Tercentenary Commission, which commission is the official state body having in charge the improvement of Plymouth harbor and permanent memorials at Plymouth.

"This year's celebrations will miss their mark, unless it be realized that the Pilgrims were impelled by love of liberty rather than by their undoubted taste for dogma. As citizens they are fathers of the whole country, but as Puritans they cannot claim the allegiance of the Catholic who remembers Drogheda and of the Jew who still feels himself somewhat apart. The true lesson of Americanism is not that everybody should think alike, but that people who think differently should like one another," says Mr. P. W. Wilson in his brief but most readable article, "The Tercentenary of the Mayflower," which is published in the September *Review of Reviews*.

#### NOTE

In the December, 1919, issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, Dr. Wittke made the statement that nowhere in this coun-

try is there a course to be had on the history of the greatest of our neighbors, Canada. History instructors will be interested to learn that this statement is no longer true. In the spring quarter of 1920, Stanford University offered a course in the history of Canada given by Professor R. G. Trotter. The course was so successful that it has been given a permanent place in the history department.

#### STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912,

of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except July, August and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1920.

County of Philadelphia,  
State of Pennsylvania,

ss.

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County, aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are:

Publisher, MCKINLEY PUBLISHING Co., Philadelphia, Pa.  
Editor, ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, Philadelphia, Pa.  
Managing Editor, ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, Philadelphia, Pa.  
Business Manager, ALFRED C. WILLITS, Philadelphia, Pa.

2. That the owners are (give names and addresses of individual owners, or, if a corporation, give its name and the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding one per cent. or more of the total amount of stock).

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, Philadelphia, Pa.  
CHARLES S. MCKINLEY, Youngstown, O.

3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding one per cent. or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are (if there are none, so state).

None.

4. That the two paragraphs next above, giving the names of the owners, stockholders, and security holders, if any, contain not only the list of stockholders and security holders as they appear upon the books of the company, but also, in cases where the stockholder or security holder appears upon the books of the company as trustee or in any other fiduciary relation, the name of the person or corporation for whom such trustee is acting, is given; also that the said two paragraphs contain statements embracing affiant's full knowledge and belief as to the circumstances and conditions under which stockholders and security holders who do not appear upon the books of the company as trustees, hold stock and securities in a capacity other than that of a bona fide owner; and this affiant has no reason to believe that any other person, association, or corporation has any interest direct or indirect in the said stock, bonds, or other securities than as so stated by him.

5. That the average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the six months preceding the date shown above is.....

(This information is required from daily publications only.)

ALFRED C. WILLITS.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 22nd day of September, 1920.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

## A PRACTICAL LESSON IN CITIZENSHIP

By REID HUNTER, Atlanta Technological High School

A practical and interesting lesson in citizenship was taught last spring and is now being repeated at the Atlanta Technological High School. The plan used was evolved by the civics department to take advantage of the national election now in progress to do some constructive teaching in citizenship. With the exception of the electoral college, practically every feature of a national election was used in the election of a student president and student vice-president. The plan was worked out to fit local conditions, but it is here set forth hoping that it may interest other high school teachers who are planning socialized history projects on a large scale.

It was the purpose of the committee in charge of the election to plan the whole undertaking on a broad basis, following wherever possible the practices in vogue in national politics—a regular registration of voters, a presidential primary, a campaign, an election and inauguration. In order that interest might not lag and that the election might not interfere with other school undertakings, the election was carried through within one month. The election in the spring was held during the month of May, while the election this fall is being conducted during the month of October—the election being held on November 2, the date set for the national presidential election.

The enrollment of the Technological High School is about 1200. There are forty-five first-period classes, and each of these first-period classes was designated as a special state, thus practically every state in the Union was represented in the conventions. In each of these first-period classes the students elect what are called "Student Leaders." These leaders are called together from time to time to confer with the principal on student activities. These student leaders were used to launch the plan. They were called together and mimeographed copies of the election plan were given them along with such general instructions as were thought necessary for the putting into operation of the plan. On the following day the student leaders were given a few minutes of the first period to explain the plan to their classmates. Of course in the meantime the idea had been "sold" to the faculty of the school, who entered into the movement with great interest and enthusiasm, giving it their full support.

For a period of ten days following the setting in motion of the plan, books were open for the registration of voters. All bona fide students who had paid their taxes (fees) and were in good standing in school could register. A committee of seniors in charge of the registration made a vigorous campaign to get all students to register. About ninety per cent of the students registered. The remaining ten per cent had a great lesson taught them before the election was over of the importance of registering on time.

Immediately following the closing of the registration books a presidential primary was held in each first-period class. All during the registration period there was a general movement to get the desirable candidates before the voters. There was considerable "Presidential Grooming." So when the primary was held there were many favorite sons. In the presidential primary each first-period class elected delegates to two conventions. Some of the first-

period classes sent delegates instructed and some were sent uninstructed. Each class chose two different sets of delegates to the conventions. In a state like Georgia, a member of the "Solid South," it was deemed inexpedient to designate the conventions as Democratic or Republican, so they were simply called Convention Number One and Convention Number Two. The delegates who were sent to the first convention were usually instructed to vote for the first presidential preference, while the delegates to the second convention were to vote for the second choice. In the event the first convention nominated the second choice the delegates to the second convention were to work for the nomination of the first choice.

The conventions met on different days. On account of the lack of an auditorium large enough to seat the whole school, admittance to the conventions was limited to delegates, press reporters, campaign managers and representatives from each of the civics classes. It was greatly regretted that the whole school could not have witnessed the proceedings of the conventions. The conventions were organized and conducted on the same general plan as national conventions. The credential committee had very little trouble in seating the delegates, as each delegate had credentials from his state properly certified by the class teacher and student leaders. After regular organization had been perfected, the roll was called by states and nominations were made in regular order with seconding speeches following. The Republican practice of requiring a majority of votes for nomination was followed rather than the Democratic practice of requiring a two-thirds majority of the votes. No delegates were instructed for Student Vice-President, so there was considerable scheming in the selection of suitable candidates for this office. There were reports from all committees except the platform committee which requested permission to delay reporting a platform until after nomination of candidates so that the nominees might assist in drafting a platform. This permission was granted.

The first convention nominated for Student President a star athlete and a running mate who was also an athlete and had made a fine record in the United States navy during the world war. The second convention nominated a student who was the editor of the school paper, a great debater, and a leader in non-athletic school affairs. His running mate was a great football player and he also had a splendid war record, having served in the American army in France, participating in many battles in which the American soldiers won everlasting glory for themselves and their country.

On the day following the meeting of the second convention, the entire student body was assembled at recess and the candidates were officially notified of their nomination. The candidates delivered short snappy keynote speeches. This set the election campaign in full swing. This was the most interesting part of the whole election plan. The candidate nominated by the second convention was not as well-known as his opponent, hence it was necessary for him to conduct a noisy campaign and one full of publicity stunts. There were no front porch speeches for him. He carried the campaign to the voters. His rival was soon forced to do the same. The campaign proper lasted ten days, and

during this time regular campaign stunts were pulled off, such as parades headed by the school band, joint debates, campaign slogans invented, posters displayed, cards soliciting votes distributed, platforms printed and distributed to all the students. So much interest was aroused that the three local daily papers caught the spirit and printed the campaign developments day by day.

Each candidate had a full set of managers and campaign workers. They organized the different wards of the city, and Sunday schools throughout the city where Tech High students attended in large numbers.

On election day everything was in readiness. The Australian ballot system was used with slight modifications to suit local conditions. There were six voting precincts. At each precinct there were clerks with duplicate registration lists, challengers, and watchers representing each candidate. A teacher was assigned to each precinct to see that everything went off in perfect order. All voting was done before school, during recess, and after school. At three o'clock the polls closed, and all ballot boxes were collected in one room and an official count was made. Many students remained after school to hear the results of the election. The returns were made known to the assembled students as the counting progressed. The vote was exceedingly close, the winner receiving only thirty votes more than his opponent.

On Friday following the election, the inauguration was staged. The principal of the school secured the use of a large auditorium across town for the inauguration exercises. Preceding the exercises at the auditorium an inaugural parade was held, leading from the school through the business district of Atlanta and thence to the auditorium. In the line of march were about sixty automobiles carrying the successful and unsuccessful candidates with their girl friends and school sponsors; campaign managers who had been appointed to student cabinet positions; members of the board of education; the assistant superintendent of schools; presidential military escort, student body in military uniform (school has R. O. T. C.). At the head of the parade was the school brass band.

A judge of the Georgia Court of Appeals was present at the exercises and administered the oaths of office. The inaugural addresses were delivered. Several of the school and city officials were called on for short speeches. The district attorney for the North Georgia Federal District Court, who has taken great interest in Americanization, delivered an address on the "Duties and Responsibilities of American Citizens." After this the principal of the school summarized some of the great lessons the students had learned in the election.

The following are some of the good results:

1—A concrete lesson in citizenship on a large scale was taught 1200 of America's future citizens.

2—Public interest was aroused in needed school improvements advocated by the candidates. Many of these improvements have been made since the first election.

3—It furnished a splendid opportunity for the development of student leadership and student initiative. The whole scheme was put through by the students.

4—It furnished an opportunity for the correlation of work in the school, as the shop department made the ballot boxes and bulletin boards for display of posters; the draw-

ing department furnished the posters and cartoons and other publicity material; the printing department printed handbills, platforms, tickets, cards soliciting votes, campaign slogans and other campaign propaganda; the English department used the issues of the campaign as debate subjects, and helped the candidates with their speeches; and the civics department used the election as a vehicle to do some real live teaching in citizenship.

5—It aided the students to understand the national election news printed daily.

6—The school came through the election struggle with a unified spirit, without personal animus being developed. The election was remarkably free from mud slinging.

#### THE PILGRIM TERCENTENARY

The official celebration of the Tercentenary of the Landing of the Pilgrims will be observed throughout America beginning December 21, next, with appropriate commemorative exercises, which are to portray the Pilgrims' arrival here, their virtues and characteristics, their hardships, their self-denial, their wonderful perseverance and unwavering and all-abiding faith in God. It is planned to have elaborate exercises and public ceremonies at Plymouth Rock and at other shrines in which Plymouth abounds, including lectures, pageantry, outdoor exercises and many unique and desirable observances and entertainments.

The anniversary, to be most potential in its results, must have for its purpose more important things than mere display or oratorical endeavor. It should have a program national in scope, patriotic in thought and conception, and one hundred per cent. American in spirit—drawing strong ethical and patriotic lessons from the various events.

To be essential to these troubled times the program should be educational and so planned as to effectively lay the foundations for a wider knowledge of American ideals and institutions and to create in the hearts and minds of our people the love of and an adherence to those tenets of a free republic—as first instituted by the Pilgrim fathers—which have made us a great, a powerful, and a God-serving people.

The people must be taught the insidious dangers that threaten and be encouraged to combat the dogmas of ultra-radicalism—anarchy, bolshevism, communism—and other misleading sophistries, which now attack the very life of our republic.

The call is for forward-looking men—men whose character, probity and worth are well known—and whose gift of public service is a guarantee that all things necessary shall be done effectually to controvert all unsound, un-American dogma or propaganda.

Three distinct organizations have been formed to provide the fullest co-operation between the federal government, the state government of Massachusetts, and that larger civic body of American citizens who believe in the programs above set forth.

The federal commission is composed of eleven men, four members of the Senate, four members of the House of Representatives, and three civilians—the latter not yet appointed by the President. The state commission is composed of five members, with Louis K. Liggett, of Boston, as chairman; Arthur Lord, George H. Lyman, Charles B.



Barnes, and Milton Reed. William Carroll Hill, of Boston, is secretary of the state commission.

Of the larger civic body Dr. Charles W. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard University, is the chairman.

The official celebration will begin at Plymouth on the afternoon of December 21, when representatives of all the foreign governments accredited to the United States will gather about Plymouth Rock with representatives from every state in the Union to observe the Pilgrim Tercentenary. Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, who has written a history of the Pilgrims, will be the orator of the occasion.

In order further to round out the official program President Wilson will issue a proclamation asking for the national observance of December 21 as Forefathers' Day.

The treasury department will issue, for the use of the national commission, a series of Pilgrim money, and the postoffice department will issue Pilgrim postage stamps and put in vogue Pilgrim cancellation stamps.

The committee having charge of the financial arrangements for the celebration are the following:

Floyd R. Switzer, Hollister, White & Co., Boston, chairman; Robert Winsor, Kidder, Peabody & Co., Boston; Allan Forbes, President State Street Trust Co., Boston; Louis A. Coolidge, Treasurer United Shoe Machinery Co., Boston; Louis K. Liggett, chairman, Massachusetts Pilgrim Commission; Alfred L. Aiken, President National Shawmut Bank, Boston; George L. Gooding, President Old Colony National Bank, Plymouth; George R. Nutter, President Boston Chamber of Commerce, Boston; Francis R. Hart, Vice-President Old Colony Trust Co., Boston; Charles W. Robie, General Manager American Railway Express Co., Boston; Sherman L. Whipple, Boston; Carl Dreyfus, Jacob Dreyfus & Sons, Boston; C. Chester Eaton, Brockton; Judge Charles F. Perkins, Brookline; Hon. Joseph Walsh, New Bedford; Alexander Holmes, Kingston.

The committee asks that all subscriptions or donations be made in check form or postoffice money order in the name of the treasurer, George L. Gooding, and forwarded to him at the Old Colony National Bank of Plymouth, Mass.

The national officers are the following:

Dr. Charles W. Eliot, national chairman, President Emeritus, Harvard University; George L. Gooding, national treasurer, President Old Colony National Bank, Plymouth, Mass.; J. Frederic MacGrath, national counsel, Montclair, N. J.

The official character of the anniversary is threefold, the national government participating through the appointment by Congress and the President of a commission composed of Senators, Congressmen, eleven in number, known as the United States Pilgrim Tercentenary commission; a Massachusetts state commission appointed by the Governor of Massachusetts, composed of five members, with Louis K. Liggett as chairman, and the official national committee, composed of prominent Americans from all the states, composing the Plymouth-Pilgrim Tercentenary Committee, of which Dr. Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University, is the president. These three elements of organization are co-ordinating their plans along national lines, each having definite official duties to perform and each with specific budgets.

The work of the federal and state commissions will be largely that of providing a memorial sea wall in Plymouth Harbor, the replacing of Plymouth Rock in its natural position on the sea front, and the definite marking by enduring tablets of the forty-odd historic places and houses in Plymouth, each connected with Pilgrim and Colonial history, the reconstruction of Cole's Hill, where lie the bones of the Pilgrims who died the first year and the reconstruction of Burial Hill so as to restore it to its original condition. The national committee will have to do with the celebration proper, and included in this program is an educational program intended to be nation-wide in its scope. The educational program will cost upwards of \$100,000. This program will be laid down and sponsored by Dr. Eliot and the presidents of the American universities and colleges, who are the vice-chairmen of the national committee, and will seek to meet the needs of educational societies, the universities and colleges, civic and industrial bodies, as well as municipalities. A program for low schools and high schools is being prepared by Payson Smith, superintendent of education of Massachusetts.

One of the chief features of the educational program will be elaborate pageantry depicting the chief events in Pilgrim history, and employing 1000 actors and about 200 Indians. The Indians will be collected in four villages, representative of ten or twelve tribes. The pageantry program will run during a period of three months—July, August and September of 1921—that being officially designated as Pilgrim year.

Another part of the proposed program is the erection of a temporary auditorium seating several thousand people, in which will be given elaborate musical, theatrical and tableaux entertainment.

Besides these features there will be aeronautical and athletic events, with suitable prizes, donated by prominent citizens, one detail of which will be an American Aero Derby. The aero program will have the co-operation of the Aero Club of America, the war and navy departments and others. The athletic exercises will be under the auspices of the A. A. U.

Besides these entertainments, most of the patriotic societies will have their conventions and special functions. To these the public will be invited. Many of the societies will make definite permanent gifts of great historic value to mark the tercentennial, for instance, the New England Society of New York will build a stone facade on Pilgrim Hall costing \$45,000. Another society will erect a marble peristyle to set off Pilgrim Rock. Another has arranged for a statue of Massasoit, the Indian chief, to be placed on Watson's Hill, while the Colonial Daughters of Brooklyn will present a sun dial and pedestal, and other organizations will present severally statues to Governor Bradford, the Pilgrim Mother and other features of Pilgrim history and personages.

All of the American patriotic societies will also be represented, chief among which are the Society of Mayflower Descendants, both nationally and from several states; the Pilgrim Society, of which the Hon. Arthur Lord is president; the Sons and Daughters of the American Revolution, the Sons and Daughters of the Revolution, the Patrons and Founders of America, the Colonial Daughters of the Seven-

teenth Century, the Society of the Cincinnati, the Old Guard of New York, the Ancient and Honorable Artillery of Boston, the National Military Sisterhood, the university and college fraternities, the sororities, together with the historical and genealogical societies, besides civic and industrial bodies, and last, but not least, the American Legion.

## Notes from the Historical Field

The Woman's Press, of New York City, has issued several pamphlets relating to new political duties of women. Among these are the following: "More Than the Vote," by R. D. Leigh; "A Spur to the Reluctant Voter," by R. D. Leigh; "Training for Citizenship," by L. C. Staples, and "The New Coming of Age," by M. B. Leigh.

The Cunard Steamship Company, of New York City, has published a geography painting book for children, entitled "Around the World with the Cunard Line." The book contains a series of pictures printed alternately in colors and in black and white, the latter being left for coloring by children. The book furnishes an excellent geography exercise as well as represents an interesting method of educational advertising.

Brief descriptions of interesting books upon education as well as many illustrations from such works, are contained in the pamphlet by Dean Frank Pierpont Graves, entitled "The Maria Hosmer Penniman Memorial Library of Education," which appears in the University of Pennsylvania *Bulletin* for May, 1920. Dr. Graves starts primarily to describe the memorial library, but incidentally touches upon many features of the history of education, and has performed a valuable service for educators by reproducing many views from early works.

"American Americanization" is the title of an address delivered by A. T. Burns, before the Educational Department of the Municipal Court of Philadelphia and published under the direction of the court. The address deprecates the current emphasis upon uniformity in language alone, and stresses the necessity for a community of spirit and ideas as well as of language.

The proceedings with reference to the Treaty of Peace with Germany in the United States Senate are described and reviewed by George A. Finch in *International Conciliation* for August, 1920. The pamphlet gives the parliamentary history of the treaty and the proposed reservations and the votes upon the several items. It contains no speeches or arguments of individual senators.

"Facts and figures about the Philippines" is an excellent illustrated pamphlet showing the economic, social and geographic conditions in the islands. The pamphlet is issued by the Bureau of Printing at Manila.

The leading article in *History* for July, 1920, is entitled "History and Ethnology," by Dr. W. H. Rivers. The author quotes with approval Prof. Maitland's statement that anthropology will soon have the choice between being history and being nothing. He shows the possibility of reconstruction of the past from ethnological and archeological researches. Such studies may not lead to facts relating to

persons and to transactions between individuals, but they do furnish the basis for an indefinite chronological series. Edward Armstrong contributes to the same number, a paper entitled "Machiavelli as political thinker." Under "historical revisions" are new judgments upon the petition of right and the balance of power.

The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, of London (The Macmillan Company, American agents), has been issuing a series of helps for students of history. The most recent pamphlet is No. 25, entitled "Introduction of the Study of Russian History," and was prepared by W. F. Reddaway. Mr. Reddaway gives an outline of Russian history; he discusses the desirability of a knowledge of the Russian language; and then gives a brief descriptive bibliography of modern works upon Russian history and Russian literature.

The World Peace Foundation, in its bimonthly periodical, *League of Nations*, is publishing much material relating to the League of Nations. The July, 1920, issue contains the text of the Covenant of the League as fixed in the Treaty of Versailles. The June number contains "The Swiss Commentary on the Covenant," a document of much interest as showing why Switzerland voted to join the league, and as giving the Swiss interpretation of the significance and meaning of the covenant. The August number (Vol. III, No. 4), contains material relating to the United States Senate and the Treaty of Peace. It gives the votes in committee of the whole upon the proposed amendments and reservations, and also the proceedings of the Senate, and includes material bearing upon the proposed declaration of peace.

## BOOK REVIEW

CAPEK, THOMAS. *The Czechs (Bohemians) in America*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920. \$3.15.

One who reads Capek's "The Czechs in America," is bound to feel acquainted at the end with a people who have played a greater part in Europe and America than most Americans realize. For this reason alone it should be in most school libraries, in certain sections of the country at least, and everywhere its broadening effect on pupil and teacher would be of value. Especially is it recommended to those who, like the writer of this review, "have come of good old New England stock," for their diligent and discriminating study. The surprises they experience will rival that which they felt when they discovered such old "American" names as Hamilton, Pickens, Laurens, etc., to be more or less French (Huguenot) in origin. Many other facts in regard to the contribution of the Czechs, the standard of culture among them, their activities in so many ways in the United States, will attract sharply the attention of the reader.

It is well to know of what we are composed. The Czech leaven in the American body-politic is well revealed here and the story affords material upon which the imagination of the teacher may build, developing it for the better education of the pupils. Particularly illuminating points are seen in the chapters on "Through Intermarriage Into the Melting Pot," "Socialism and Radicalism," "Rationalism," "Journalism and Literature." Those at the very beginning discussing the early emigrations contain several surprises to Americans.

This book is about the Czechs. Those interested in the Slovaks, now united with their kinsmen in Czecho-Slovakia, must look elsewhere. Separated as they were for centuries by political boundary lines, the Slovaks and Czechs developed differently in many ways, and in emigration distributed themselves in different sections.

To such a really valuable work some leniency in applying the usual canons of historical criticism is decidedly in order. Some "partiality" is inevitable under the circumstances, but we may call it over-enthusiasm and easily discount it. It is by no means troublesome; it is even welcome (since offensive it nowhere is) because it lightens up the pages, some of which might otherwise resemble too closely "the catalogue of the ships." This flocking of names is inevitable perhaps, but it is cleverly done so that one does not become bored by the procession. A scholarly flavor is given by occasional footnotes, and a bibliographical appendix containing a selected list of books and articles, to say nothing of the index which is quite workable. The tables which the author has used to decided advantage should not be left without mention nor indeed the illustrations of prominent Czechs and their work, Czech centers, etc.

Its chief fault is the catalogic "dictionary" style which is perhaps almost inevitable for a work of this kind and scope. Its others are venial ones, as has already been suggested.

ARTHUR I. ANDREWS.

Tufts College.

#### PERIODICAL LITERATURE

By GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In discussing "Cyprus, Pontus, and the Cause of International Sanity" in the *Balkan Review*, for August, Sir Arthur H. Croasfield, Bart., M.P., says, "For the last two and forty years since the establishment of British authority in the island (Cyprus) its progress has received a great impetus . . . but . . . prosperity and progress have not in the smallest degree sapped their national aspirations for union with Greece."

In the *Deutsche Rundschau*, for July, 1920, Alfredo Hartwig in an article on the method of the Allies against the Germans on the coast of South America, criticizes most severely the method of the English navy.

Most interesting is the article by James J. Daly, S.J., on Sir Thomas More, Saint and Humorist, which appears in the *Catholic World* for July. The author deals particularly with the last days of the noted Englishman.

"Wales and Reformation," an interesting article in the last *Dublin Review*, by Arthur S. Barnes, contains the following suggestion for another line of investigation:

"At the time of the changes in religion at the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth, Wales was without doubt the most Catholic part of dominions. Here at least the new learning from Germany had found no welcome . . . Protestantism has made no greater inroads there than among the kindred Celtic population in Ireland. . . . One can scarcely exaggerate the intensity of the international jealousy which separated Englishmen from Welshmen. Wherever the two nationalities met, invariable troubles

arose. Neither race understood the other and neither would give way. This difference was the cause of loss of Wales to the faith, and was most generally manifested in dissensions in the Catholic seminaries in northern France."

"The difficulty of excluding party feeling and personal sympathy in looking at the later Middle Ages is greatest when we turn to matters ecclesiastical. Here, where critical insight should be most cultivated few even aim at an impartial judgment, most men frankly act as advocates, editing history in their own favor," says Canon A. S. Bannister, in his article, "Church Life in the Middle Ages," which appears in the *Edinburgh Review* for July.

In his account of "Greek Elements in the Renaissance of the Twelfth Century" (*American Historical Review* for July), Professor C. H. Haskins says:

"The Renaissance of the twelfth century consisted in part of a revival of the Latin classics and the Roman law, when the movement has sometimes been called a 'Roman renaissance.' . . . No general study has yet been made of this movement, but detailed investigation has advanced sufficiently to permit of a brief survey of the present state of knowledge. . . . The most important meeting point of Greek and Latin culture in the twelfth century was the Norman kingdom of Southern Italy and Sicily. . . . Italy had no other royal court to serve as a center of the new learning and no other region where East and West met in such constant and fruitful intercourse."

An article by J. Ellis Barker which appears in the *Fortnightly Review* for August, 1920, is entitled "Will Germany Keep the Peace?" And the author says in discussing his question that:

"The Spa meeting has revealed the fact that the Germans have retained vast organized military forces and armaments sufficient for mobilizing several million men. The Germans have refused to disarm and have hidden vast quantities of weapons and of ammunition which are primarily for internal and only secondly for external use. The reactionaries wish to destroy the democracy by means of a civil war, and the democrats, and especially the minority Socialists, are equally determined not to be slaughtered by their enemies, but to exterminate the reactionaries, should the Kapp attempt be followed by a counter revolution on a large scale. While many German reactionaries talk hopefully of shooting the pestilential Socialists, many Socialists equally hopefully look forward to the day when they can revenge the murder of their leaders . . . and establish a true democracy in Germany."

In discussing "The Future," the Earl of Arran says, in the *National Review* for August: "The question as to the future, therefore, resolves itself into this: Will an opportunist government living its official life from day to day, choose to take a strong line and, defying criticism, insist on the re-establishment of law and order in Ireland, without counting the cost; or will that same government, in the hope of remaining in office a little longer, establish an inimical Irish Republic on the flank of Great Britain, with the whispered but heartfelt prayer—'Give peace in our time, O Lord!'"



## EDITORIAL NOTE

In the October issue of **THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK**, the degree attributed to Prof. Edith E. Ware should be Ph.D., not Sc.D.

BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED  
IN THE UNITED STATES FROM AUGUST 28  
TO SEPTEMBER 25, 1920

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

## AMERICAN HISTORY

- Chase, Franklin H., compiler. *Bibliography of Syracuse history*. Syracuse, N. Y.: Onondaga Hist. Assn. 219 pp. \$1.00.
- Eekhof, A. Three unknown documents concerning the Pilgrim Fathers in Holland. N. Y.: F. C. Stechert. 48 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Evans, Lawton B. *America first; one hundred stories from our own history*. Boston: Milton Bradley Co. 447 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Goodwin, John A. *The Pilgrim Republic; a historical review of the Colony of New Plymouth. Tercentenary Edition*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 662 pp. \$7.50, net.
- Hauck, Louise P. *Missouri yesterdays; stories of the romantic days of Missouri*. Kansas City, Mo.: Burton Pub. Co. 207 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Kellog, Laura C. *Our democracy and the American Indian*. Kansas City, Mo.: Burton Pub. Co. 152 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Story of America (The); prepared by Albert Pecorini for the Mass. Society of the Colonial Dames [English and Italian on alternate pages]. Boston: M. Jones Co. 237 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Woodman, Henry. *The history of Valley Forge*. Oaks, Pa.: J. W. Francis, Sr. 156 pp. \$1.00, net.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Daniels, Geo. W., and Unwin, George. *The early English cotton industry*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 214 pp. \$2.25, net.
- Fisk, Harvey E. *English public finance; from the Revolution of 1688*. N. Y.: Bankers Trust Co., 16 Wall St. 241 pp.
- Hammond, John L. L., and Hammond, B. B. *The village labourer, 1760-1832; a study in the government of England before the reform bill*. (New edition.) N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 339 pp. \$4.00, net.
- Holloway, Henry. *The reformation in Ireland; study of ecclesiastical legislation*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 240 pp. (1½ p. bibl.) \$3.00, net.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Goodhart, Arthur L. *Poland and the minority races*. N. Y.: Brentano's. 191 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Levine, Isaac Don. *Letters from the Kaiser to the Czar . . . private letters from the Kaiser to the Czar found in a chest after the Czar's execution and now in the possession of the Soviet government*. N. Y.: Stokes. 264 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Linden, H. Vander. *Belgium; the making of a nation*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 365 pp. \$3.75, net.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

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